REPORT RESUMES

ED 016 286 EA 001 058

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, A BEHAVIORAL APPROACH. PART TWO, PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS.

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PUB DATE 66

EDRS PRICE MF-$1.00 HC-$9.00 223P.

DESCRIPTORS- *EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, LEADERSHIP STYLES, ADMINISTRATOR ROLE, *PROFESSIONAL TRAINING, INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP, COMMUNITY RELATIONS, TEACHER ADMINISTRATOR RELATIONSHIP, *ADMINISTRATOR QUALIFICATIONS, INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS, HUMAN RELATIONS, PUBLIC RELATIONS, *ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM DESIGN, SELF EVALUATION, ADMINISTRATOR EVALUATION, TEACHER EVALUATION, *ADMINISTRATOR SELECTION,

THE DEMOCRATIC EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR FORMS HIS DECISIONMAKING ON FIVE BASIC PREMISES FORMULATED FROM A STUDY OF THE NATURE OF THE DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY--THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL, THE MEANING OF GROUPS, THE PLACE OF ARGUMENTATION AND PERSUASION, THE ROLE OF POWER AND CONTROL, AND THE ASSUMPTIONS OF DECISIONMAKING. THROUGH A NUMBER OF RELATED INSIGHTS HE TRANSLATES THESE PREMISES INTO PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF MEANINGFUL ACTION AND INTERACTION. ONE MAJOR APPLICATION OF THESE CONCEPTS RELATES EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AS A PROFESSION TO THE PERSON BEING TRAINED FOR THE ADMINISTRATOR ROLE, WITH SPECIAL IMPORT FOR BOTH THE SELECTION AND TRAINING PROCESSES. A SECOND MAJOR APPLICATION RELATES THEM TO THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS OF THE ADMINISTRATOR WITH THE PUBLIC, WITH HIS STAFF PERSONNEL, AND WITH HIS STUDENTS. IN A DEMOCRATIC CONTEXT DEFINED AS A PERSONALIZED APPROACH, SUGGESTIONS ARE MADE FOR IMPROVING TEACHER-PARENT AND TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIPS. SPECIAL ATTENTION IS GIVEN TO CURRICULUM PLANNING, WITH THE CURRICULUM REGARDED AS A TOOL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF MATURITY OF ALL PERSONS INVOLVED IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS. SELF-EVALUATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR IS EMPHASIZED, WITH SUCCESS MEASURED NOT BY WHAT HAPPENS TO HIM BUT BY THE GROWTH OF ALL THE PEOPLE HE SERVES. THE COMPLETE DOCUMENT, OF WHICH THIS IS PART II, PAGES 199-388, WAS PUBLISHED BY HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY, 110 TREMONT STREET, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02107. (JK)

ED016286

educational administration

a behavioral approach

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Educational Administration

A BEHAVIORAL APPROACH

BENJAMIN M. SACHS, *Sacramento State College*
with the assistance of GENEVIEVE VAN STROM PITCOCK

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Editor's Introduction

This book deals with aspects of educational administration long overlooked and neglected. In approach, organization, content, and format it is different from any other book in the field.

Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach is a study of educational leadership from, as the title implies, the viewpoint of the humanist. The author suggests in his preface that dissatisfaction with previous efforts to analyze and deal with the problems related to school administration prompted him to undertake this task. To it, Dr. Sachs has brought extensive preparation, training, and experience. His identification with the classroom as a teacher and his familiarity with the concerns of an administrator resulting from a variety of central staff assignments have been complemented by his experience as a consultant to representative school systems.

Granting that this behavioral approach to administration represents but a beginning, it can be stated with certainty that the presentation reflects significantly new dimensions. Here the student, the novice, and the seasoned practitioner alike will find new insights into the problems that relate to the organization and management of schools. Unlike the stereotyped text, with its generalizations of principles and practices, this book analyzes and tests the behavioral concepts that relate to the cooperative endeavor of serving the individual and society through organized education.

New and unfamiliar though many of the author's socio-psychological concepts may be to administrators, it is well to have them enunciated and subsequently evaluated through application. Critically pragmatic rather than theoretical, the author believes that the hope for the future of educational administration lies in the elements of his basic hypotheses. He well understands the authority-oriented administration he rejects, and he substantiates his convictions.

Obviously *Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach* is not just another "warmed-over" text. It is certain to arouse comment, assent, dissent, and controversy, and as it does so its purpose will be served. It seems likely to become a publishing landmark.

Herold C. Hunt

Harvard University

Foreword

This book presents a forceful and consistent point of view. It is the view that enhancement of the individual, whoever he may be, is the goal of good education, of educational administration, and indeed of our society.

It is in the depth of the treatment of such concepts as the dignity of the individual; argumentation and persuasion; living with ambiguity; the nature of failure, authority, empathy, and insight that the book is most refreshing, for the author has sought to analyze these ideas critically at both the cognitive and affective levels. Each concept is reinforced by identification of the behaviors which tend to enhance the individual.

The development of socio-psychological theory, relevant to educational administration – indeed relevant to working with others at any time, under any circumstances, and in any walk of life in a free and open society – distinguishes this book from most of the current texts in educational administration. Its content goes far beyond a description of current practices and in no way advances quick, ready-made solutions to complex problems. But the author does not leave the reader with theory only. For, by illustration, exposition, and research he supports the essential relevance of theory to practice. Major sections of the book are devoted to the application of principles and theory to administration.

A book of this kind in the field of educational administration is long overdue. Some authors have drawn upon the behavioral sciences to show their importance to educational administration, but few if any, in my opinion, have integrated the behavioral science concepts with those of administration so consistently and with so much insight. This integration has been achieved as a result of a lifetime of study and testing of the concepts by the author.

A hurried review of the first part of the book may leave the reader with the impression that it is not a book on educational administration. Even the vocabulary may seem to some more appropriate for a book in psychology. But careful study will reveal that as a field devoted to working with teachers, pupils, and the public, the book is basic to educational administration and the development of effective relationships. Indeed, some of the ideas of the book may be in advance of the field, and their applications are goals yet to be achieved.

Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach will be useful to many readers. It can afford an opportunity to reflect upon the underlying philosophy of the importance of the individual in any organization in society – a school, a factory, a home. Teachers, parents, and others working with people will find suggestions for improving their interpersonal relationships. More especially, this book will provide the student of educational administration with a frame of reference for the development of values and theories of administration to be tested. For the practicing administrator, it will serve as a criterion for his performance. For the professor of educational administration, it brings together from the various behavioral science fields an abundance of relevant material. The ideas advanced can serve to enrich his instruction, provide a vehicle for fruitful discussion with students, and stimulate his own thinking about the ends and means of administration.

This book will serve many purposes, depending on the interests of the reader, but, in my judgment, as a text or a reference it deserves intensive study and reflection.

Howard S. Bretsch

University of Michigan

Preface

I confess that this book is written from a biased view. Objectivity is sought by many textbook writers, but it is my conviction that the pursuit of total objectivity is the pursuit of a mirage. In writing a book such as this, one has several alternatives, one of which is to state all aspects of a problem. But this is literally impossible, since every human being is limited by the fact that he cannot know all there is to know about anything, and to state only those concepts which he is able to discover or learn is immediately to introduce some form of bias, no matter how encyclopedic the work appears to be. Samuel Johnson, writing his dictionary, was well aware of the opportunity available to him for expressing his own biases in a type of volume often considered virtually opinionless.

When we deal with educational administration, a relatively unstable subject at present, we are certainly in the realm of bias. Perhaps the newness of the field – we can trace the history of the city school superintendent only as far as the end of the last century – makes it conducive to this condition. As a result, much that is in the nature of myth has grown around educational administration. One shallow but not uncommon belief is that one of the signs of "successful" administration is long tenure in a given position. Another curiosity is the fact that many educational leaders confuse expediency with success. Somehow, they have arrived at the idea that whatever "works" represents sound leadership. I submit that this is a superficial and often destructive notion of leadership. Callahan, in his book, *Education and the Cult of Efficiency*, suggests that administrators, in succumbing to the idea of "efficiency," have done much harm to the discipline.

There is one common characteristic among leaders that seems to distinguish them. They are more often than not "angry" men. They are men who find the status quo unacceptable and set out in some way to do something about it. Of course, one man's anger may be directed against man's humanness, while another's may be directed against his inhumanity. Thus the acts of a leader, regardless of where we find him, have within them some directional sense which must be examined and evaluated before we can discuss his leadership behavior.

One of Thomas' criticisms of educational programs for school administrators is quite succinct regarding this matter:

> Another soft spot in our programs, it seems to me, is the almost disdainful avoidance of the human side of school administration, except for frequent exhortations and pronunciamentos on the virtues of being democratic.[1]

It has become clear to me through the years that the underlying motivation of the individual leader is far more significant than his successes or failures, that what he is angry about is more significant than the fact that he is angry, and that the values he considers most important are at the heart of his behavior.

But even in the recruitment of prospective school administrators, we have not come to grips with these facts. Indeed, according to Thomas,

> The melancholy fact is, then, that we haven't been going out after the best prospective school administrators and we don't do much to screen the ones who come to us. Self-selection is still the only selection that is over the nation as a whole; the main admission requirement is that the person be present. On second thought, he doesn't even have to be present — we'll take him sight unseen.[2]

Now to spell all this out in terms of understandings to be learned and practices to be undertaken is an almost impossible task. Therefore, this book is just a beginning. Many materials that could have been cited have been omitted because of a lack of space or because of my own ignorance. Others are not available because generally we have not seen fit to study leadership in this way until recently. What I have attempted is to integrate some of the ideals and premises of the humanist and to present the idea that each man must find his way toward understanding the reality of his behavior by searching himself. I have also tried to suggest that certain tools, particularly those available from the behavioral sciences, may help the individual administrator in this process. Finally, I have attempted to apply, at least in a portion of the acts in which the administrator engages, some of the results of such an exploration as I have observed them.

I would like to acknowledge the exceptionally concrete and perceptive review and criticism of the manuscript by Howard Bretsch. His brilliant analysis of both the strengths and weaknesses of the text forced me to revise, re-structure, and tighten it considerably. His was a critique that as a model was in itself so worthy of publication that I have included at least a portion of it in the book.

To the untiring efforts of my research assistant, Genevieve Pitcock, who prepared the manuscript and assisted with the proofreading which followed, goes credit for the difficult and onerous detail that goes into the completion of a manuscript.

My wife, Rose E. Sachs, rounded out the circumstances necessary for completion. At considerable sacrifice she arranged our family's schedule and activities so that time was available during the two years needed to complete the research and writing.

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[1] Michael P. Thomas, *Strategies in the Preparation of School Administrators* (Albuquerque, N.M.: The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, 1964), p. 6.

[2] *Ibid.* p. 4.

Finally, to my graduate students, whose work I have quoted quite liberally, I wish to acknowledge a debt of gratitude also. Perhaps some of the insights they are developing are more important than the text itself, for a teacher does more than teach. He makes it possible for others to learn, and often this learning returns in kind to the instructor. As I have suggested throughout this text, the pursuit of truth is a two-way street, and I have received much from my students. Regardless of the success or failure of any single effort, the fact is that they have contributed to my wisdom as I hope I have to theirs. After all, the central thesis of this volume is that the outstanding administrator is in reality a "teacher of teachers." In my judgment, only as he both teaches and facilitates teaching does the administrator emerge as a true educational "leader."

Benjamin M. Sachs

Sacramento State College

PART TWO

Practical Applications

Section C · The Profession and the Administrator

In Section C we propose to examine critically some of the issues involved in the professional training of administrators. First we shall try to determine the kind of student who may be attracted to administration. Our approach will be rather obvious and superficial because data bearing on the appraisal of such factors as personality structure and underlying motivation for going into the field of administration are not at present available. Griffiths[1] and others have hinted at the idea of power as a motivating force. How strong it is remains an unanswered question.

Administration students range from 22 to 55 years of age with a mean age of about 35 to 36 years. There are more men in the administration sequence than in other graduate programs — four or five men to each woman. Many of the students in the administrative sequence are employed or have been employed as professional educators, either as teachers or as administrators. And finally, practically all of these students have received their bachelor's degree. Indeed, in more and more states the prerequisite for a supervisory-principal credential is an M.A. The program is becoming graduate work in some and postgraduate work in others.

These data lead us to the assumption that the candidates are, for the most part, academically able; they are sufficiently intelligent to have met college requirements and sufficiently competent to have completed a baccalaureate program. The factors of maturity, intelligence, and professional employment alone indicate that a graduate program for administration needs to appeal to a sophisticated group; that is, they may be naïve about educational administration and even education, but they are far from naïve academically.

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[1] D. E. Griffiths, *Human Relations in School Administration* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956), pp. 100–101.

A Premise to be Considered. As suggested elsewhere, past experiences are not all necessarily helpful to the student. It is entirely possible that they may have reduced his understanding of the profession rather than increased his insights and understandings. Many people enter administration for reasons that are less than optimal.

Because those who have chosen to become educational leaders probably have greater than average professional experience and relatively greater academic training, their concepts and attitudes are likely to have been somewhat rigidly structured. This will be more and more the case as states increase both academic and professional requirements for educational leadership. Not a little of the rigidity is due to preconceived ideas of administration prevalent in the culture; they run the gamut, from the idea that administration is no discipline at all, to Parkinson's formulation of manipulation, to Dunham's philosophy:

> He loved as administrators love — that is to say, he loved the organization. . . . And organizational love, as it appears in administrators, has the singular property that, in proportion as the whole body is cherished, the individual member is suspect of fault.
>
> . . . In an administrative view, there is no spontaneity so striking as the effort of members to do what the organization forbids.[2]

But to increase experience and academic training without a clear understanding of their goals and purposes may be to defeat the intent of the program.

Purposes and Goals of the Training Program. On the following pages we are concerned first with defining a profession, lest we find ourselves evaluating a program which may seem "practical" yet lacks the characteristics and commitments that are implicit in all professions. An educational leader whose practice is efficient but whose perception of his role is narrow and confined only to concepts involving "success" or "expediency" or "the organization" or "power" is scarcely a credit to his profession. But we must know what a profession is.

[2] Barrows Dunham, *Heroes and Heretics* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1964). pp. 170–171.

Education and the specialty of administration have certain peculiar professional commitments and tasks, as does each of the other professions; therefore, having established and analyzed the general nature of a profession, we shall proceed to an analysis of the profession of education, and of administration as a specialty within its framework. Again this is necessary because without it we may not be aware of how a professional educational administrator is supposed to function. It is possible, of course — indeed it may be desirable — to take pointers from other disciplines. But they must be analyzed and integrated into the special educational tasks.

Having done this, we shall be ready for the discussion of the program for administrators. This divides itself into two parts: the selection process and some aspects of training. Let us proceed.

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The Nature of a Profession

A profession has been defined as "A vocation or occupation requiring advanced training in some liberal art or science, and usually involving mental rather than manual work, as teaching, engineering, writing, etc.; especially medicine, law, or the theology (formerly called *the learned professions*). The body of persons in a particular calling or occupation."

A list of the professions for our purposes would include these:

> Medicine: "The science and art of diagnosing, treating, curing, and preventing disease, relieving pain, and improving and preserving health."
>
> Law: "All the rules of conduct established and enforced by the authority, legislation, or custom of a given community or other group: as, a basic tenet of English law."
>
> Engineering: "The planning, designing, construction, or management of machinery, roads, bridges, buildings, fortifications, waterways, etc."
>
> Teaching: "The action of a person who teaches; profession of a teacher. . . . To show how to do something, give instructions to; train."
>
> Nursing: "The activities of one who is trained to take care of the sick, injured, or aged, assist surgeons, etc."

There are many other professions, but the above will suffice. In this chapter we wish to emphasize four essential qualities of a profession, in order to make clear the purposes of training both teachers and administrators.

A body of knowledge has in the past seemed to be the core of a profession, but we would submit that, although of great importance, it is not a cornerstone upon which a profession is built. Such knowledge may be crucial only to the skill of a practitioner of a profession. In other words, while it is true that the professional person needs to perform with skill, it does not follow that a skilled person is necessarily a professional. What then, are the qualities of a profession?

The Quality of Ethical Insight

No person can practice a profession without ethical insight. We have previously discussed insight in the administrator in terms of the behavioral sciences. Here we are discussing it as a necessary trait of the professional person. There are sufficient differences in approach to warrant some detail.

Self-Perception. Undoubtedly the individual who takes on tasks as complicated as those required by medicine, law, or any other profession needs to have considerable knowledge of his own values. Practically, it would be a tragic error if someone were to engage in a profession while holding values not commensurate with the demands of that profession. Thus a physician who did not feel a genuine need to assist the ill or an attorney who did not deeply respect the law would in our judgment not measure up to one important standard required of a professional person.

To Morris L. Cogan "... it appears that some of the problems of defining a profession can be resolved if the practitioners (1) seek to establish a general framework within a lexicological and historical context, (2) provide ideal incentives through the persuasive definitions, and (3) develop the behavioral and operational definitions that give direction within the unique conditions of a specific profession."[1]

Only in the third item just quoted, and then in a peripheral fashion, are the behavioral components involving the self related to the professions. However, the above was published in 1955. In *Commitment to Nursing,* published in 1962, we find the following:

> . . . The nurse's role, such as she sees it, must be compatible with the values which she holds dear; the self-as-a-nurse must be preferable to the self-as-something-else.
>
> There should be a unification of the young person's social image: the self-as-a-nurse, and of her private image: the self-as-I-have-always-been. In other words, she must accept the fact that her becoming a nurse will bring deep changes in her personality, and she must will these changes. Ego-identification must follow commitment to the role that she is choosing to play in society – nursing. On the other hand, there could be no commitment without at least some degree of satisfactory ego-identification. . . .
>
> If self-realization coincides with ego-identification and follows commitment, professional education assumes a tremendous importance for the student and has deeper implications than just giving her a means of earning a living, or attaining social status. It is the means given her to become what the existentialists call "being-in-situation" or "being-in-the-world."[2]

---

[1] In Thorsten Sellin (ed.), *Ethical Standards and Professional Conduct,* Vol. 297 of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* (Philadelphia: The Academy, 1955), p. 111.

[2] Sister Madeleine Clemence Vaillot, *Commitment to Nursing* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1962), pp. 16, 17.

This excerpt is considerably more behaviorally oriented. Certainly it could be assumed that from commitment to the values of the profession as congruent with one's own values comes a *growth in self-perception.* In addition to knowing his assets and limitations as a person, as we have discussed elsewhere, this process involves knowing more and more how one can best serve both society and himself through the profession he has chosen.

> . . . Vocational adjustment is a function of the degree to which an individual is able to implement his self-concept, to play the kind of role he wants to play, to meet his important needs in his work and career. This means self-realization.[3]

Every profession includes specialized as well as generalized tasks of great complexity. In choosing a profession one has to make a practical application of this growing self-perception. Whether one is a surgeon or a general practitioner, a corporation attorney or a politician, a teacher or an administrator may make some or little difference societally. What is of importance, both to the individual and to the profession, is that, unless his decisions are made perceptively, rationally, and primarily in terms of the self, they lose much of the quality of ethical insight and consequently lack relevance to the profession itself.

> Man must choose between "to have" and "to be." When I *have,* I play a role, either in my own or in others' eyes; I try to add to my own stature with borrowed values; I do not coincide with myself, there is duplicity in me, and, consequently, I am very vulnerable. When I *am,* or rather when I become, for the authentic existent is always in the making, I repudiate all duplicity, all bad faith, in the Sartrean sense of the word, and I am free to fulfill my human destiny. . . .
>
> . . . Between the man who *has* perfection, and the one who endeavors to *become* perfect, there is the difference which separates unauthentic from the authentic being.
>
> . . . The committed person is the one who accepts her situation of being-in-the-world, who considers this world as a mystery, who is a presence to others and prefers, with absolute honesty, to be someone rather than to hide her essential poverty behind the trappings of possession. In so doing, she passes from *existence* to *being.*[4]

Worthwhileness of the Task. From such perception comes a growing belief in the worthwhileness of the task. The doctor needs to be proud of his service, the attorney of his, the engineer of his, the teacher and administrator of theirs. Indeed, if a democratic society is to survive, the commitments that all men make, professional or otherwise, to any task which is of service to others should carry with them a feeling of worthwhileness. But what we are emphasizing here is that a profession, by virtue of its intimate service to people, may be more heavily weighted in this regard. If a person in a profession does not have this feeling, he falls short of ethical insight and in turn short of obtaining professional stature. The degree to which he takes pride in his service to others, then, is a significant measure of his professional insight.

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[3] Donald E. Super, *The Psychology of Careers* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 300.

[4] Vaillot, *op. cit.,* pp. 41–42.

Success and Failure. Another quality related to insight is associated with a *high degree of accomplishment and failure,* in a professional sense. It is important to recognize that the doctor or the attorney or the teacher succeeds at times amazingly well, but he may also fail miserably on occasion. Some failures are due to the fact that the profession has not developed enough knowledge to enable him to succeed; not long ago few physicians could succeed with paralytic polio. Or the practitioner's own lack of skill may cause him to fail. Or again, failure may stem from the very nature of the task: old age and death are inevitable regardless of growing medical sophistication. But the profession and the professional person are aware of this incompleteness, and it is of considerable concern to both. Indeed, to the extent that the profession lacks concern about this, it needs growth in insight. To the extent that the individual lacks concern, he has yet to develop professionally. However, the existence of concern leads to a continued search by members of the profession for greater understanding and knowledge in order that failure be minimized. Such a search involves also the search for greater understanding of self as a professional worker with deeper and deeper commitment to service within the profession — and this despite the full realization that no doctor can prevent death finally, no attorney can create an entirely just law, no engineer can build a perfect bridge, and no teacher can teach everything about any subject to any student.

Pride in the Profession. Out of growing awareness comes a *developing pride in the profession* — pride in having spent considerable time in training, pride in having assumed the role of a professional worker, and finally pride in assuming a role in the particular profession to which the individual aspires. It is a sad commentary that at the present time pride in the profession is reinforced by rewards, both tangible and intangible, attached to hierarchical levels. This is not to say that there should not be differentiation of salaries for different tasks. It is difficult, however, to see why there should be a hierarchy of status for professions rather than an evaluative approach congruent with the service rendered (see below).

Pride in the profession here includes an *ethical commitment.* Much has been said about ethics in other places. The notion of a code of ethics for a given profession is persistent. We are certainly not opposed to this idea. But in order for any ethical code to be operational the practitioner must have considerable pride in his profession. Without it he may pay lip service to an ethical code, may even follow the letter of the code. But with it he follows the spirit as well and moves toward a very high level of ethical and professional insight.[5]

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[5] We must also mention that a secretary too might have pride because of her services to the person she works for and with; indeed, this pride in our judgment is characteristic of all people who seek to do a task to the best of their ability.

Finally, professional insight involves a commitment to *long and complex training*. It is obvious that as a field of knowledge grows, the training becomes longer and more complicated. This the professional person perceives from the very beginning. Even the apprenticeship is of great significance to the program, for more and more the professional person needs not only skill in his own profession but the understandings that undergird all professions. This means that he must acquire a liberal background, which has many social implications. Without it the foundation for his service as a professional practitioner will be insecure.

Developing ethical and professional insight is the most important and difficult task the professional person undertakes. It should begin early, then, in terms of contemplation and discussion and should be ongoing through preliminary experiences, apprenticeship training, and practice. It is a tragedy to both the individual and the profession when someone becomes part of a profession to which he gives only shallow allegiance and from which he obtains only naïve and temporary rewards.[6] We believe such a condition can develop when the person involved does not undertake the ongoing task of developing ethical and professional insight.

The Quality of Diagnostic Wisdom

If there is one characteristic that is unique to a profession – a characteristic that grants a large degree of autonomy to the professional and at the same time an awesome responsibility – it is the quality of diagnostic wisdom. Diagnostic wisdom involves obtaining all the facts available and putting them together in some integrated form. Therefore, the nature of diagnostic wisdom includes the ability to *integrate* as much *pertinent data* as can be obtained. As Dewey puts it, "there is one common character of all such scientific operations which it is necessary to note. *They are such as disclose relationships.*"[7]

The physician, the attorney, the engineer, and the teacher should have been able to acquire various skills through their training. But diagnostic wisdom develops as the individual learns, through knowledge and experience, to establish a unity which makes sense in light of the situation in which he is functioning. Without this quality a profession cannot emerge nor can a professional person be said to exist. If a single medicine could cure all ills, or a single bridge span all rivers, diagnosis would be unnecessary and the physician would be subservient to the peddler of nostrums and the engineer of less use than the one design for all bridges. We suggest that the ability to diagnose is crucial to a profession and to any professional person.

Diagnostic ability further differentiates between the professions and other socially useful tasks in which man engages. The professional, because he must integrate all the data pertinent to a *single* situation, is faced with an almost infinite variety of alternatives. The doctor may recognize a certain illness, but if he is to function with the deepest diagnostic wisdom, the data regarding an individual patient have to be interpreted in terms of *that* patient. The same thing is true for the attorney and his client and for the engineer and the community he is serving. The reason a patient sometimes becomes dissatisfied with his physician, regardless of the latter's diagnostic ability, is that the physician may not have been able to integrate the added personal data concerning the patient himself. It is also true that engineers can design superhighways which cause dismay and antipathy in the communities they are meant to serve.[8]

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[6] Both the individual and the profession are damaged under such conditions. Might this have been true of public school administration in some measure?

[7] John Dewey, *The Quest for Certainty* (New York: Capricorn Books, 1960), p. 125.

In a similar way the teacher who has all the methods at his fingertips may be unable to adapt them to the needs of the students facing him. Instead of teaching in the optimal sense of the word, he may be arousing hostility to learning, although on "objective" tests the student may prove to have acquired a number of skills. Such tests would also demonstrate the efficiency of the superhighway regardless of the dismayed community, and they might even show that the patient was cured in spite of his distaste for his physician.

Personalization. There is then, a subtle quality involved in diagnostic wisdom which is often overlooked: *personalization.* Through this integrative skill the professional person concludes eventually that the people he serves are intimately related to him in a professional sense. Thus the physician speaks of "my patients," the attorney of "my clients," the teacher of "my students." One of the great architects of our time identified with each community to which he contributed so completely that his designs not only attest to his ability as an engineer and architect but enhance the communities in which they are found.

Personalization requires some crucial decisions regarding the administrative structure that exists in any profession. Obviously, an integrated, personalized diagnosis cannot be made on a mass basis or in a machine-like fashion. Certain statistical data may be handled this way. But at the point of impact between the professional person and *his* client, there needs to exist an intimacy transcending that which is found in the non-profession.

Diagnostic Skills and Creativity. It follows that a person involved in a profession has a *growing need to develop diagnostic skills.* This need is closely connected with his ethical and professional insight, and for this reason we listed insight before all the other qualities. It is also in keeping with his need for continuing scientific inquiry. Because he is involved in diagnoses which at times are ambiguous and which he must perceive realistically, he has a *creative function* as well. A profession not only establishes means by which scientific data can be collected but enables its members to act creatively in such a way as to reinterpret and re-evaluate them from time to time. Thus the integrative aspect of the diagnostic act includes both a scientific and a creative element.

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[8] Such a situation actually exists in one of the larger metropolitan areas of the Pacific coast.

It is, therefore, logical for a profession to set aside time and money for the purpose of stimulating these two elements. Moreover, a profession should promote greater and greater autonomy for its members in order for them to perform both as integrators and as creators in extending diagnostic wisdom. When a profession does not see fit to do this, it loses some of the status of a profession. No code of ethical conduct can compensate for this lack. As a matter of fact the profession's request that the individual adhere to a code of ethics is weakened, for the profession itself has not established an ethical contract involving increasing autonomy for its members. Further, since it is assumed in a profession that the practitioner acts ethically through self-evaluation, it follows that the profession must do likewise.

Society too, if it wishes to preserve and develop diagnostic wisdom in any profession, must see to it that opportunity for research and autonomy is made available to members of the profession and that conditions are such that they can become more research-minded, scientifically integrative, and creative.

The administrator's function becomes extremely important when he attempts to put these ideas into effect, whether he is chief-of-staff in a hospital, head of a bar association, president of an engineering firm, or a school district superintendent. It now becomes his duty to so organize procedures that research can continue and that the professional can obtain time and resources for furthering his diagnostic ability.

When the administrator does his job well, he establishes greater autonomy, not only for the professional, but for the profession. Of even more significance, by increasing the profession's services he enables it to be more useful to society. Interestingly, he thus not only enhances a profession and professional people but improves his own profession (administration) and develops his own diagnostic wisdom and skill as a professional worker (see Chapter 5).

Incompleteness of Diagnostic Wisdom. Finally, a professional person faces the fact that diagnostic wisdom is *never fully achieved although it must be continuously undertaken.* This is at once his despair and his inspiration. Recognizing that he can never completely understand his profession, he is fully aware of his deficiency.

When this deficiency becomes too frustrating or when the practitioner is unaware that it is inherent in the task, he may find himself forsaking the role of the professional. In this case, of course, the profession itself is prevented from progressing. It is true that at certain stages there is seemingly no alternative in diagnosis but to admit defeat. However, defeat is seen as temporary in the professional sense. A dedicated physician may not even be able to diagnose certain diseases well, and in this sense fail. But he perceives his failure as only temporary with regard to the profession. His dedication may involve the acceptance of his own failure, but he rejects failure for all time regarding most aspects of his profession, whether he has a part in any later successes or not.

It is the latter ideal that forms the professional person's inspiration, for he also knows that most of the practitioners of his profession feel much the same way. But if a profession contains many, even though a minority, who do not feel this sense of dedication, he is confused and dismayed and may develop feelings of hostility for people in his profession as well as toward the profession itself – a kind of "Is it worthwhile?" attitude.

The administrator, then, needs to make certain, insofar as possible, that this commitment is clearly made by himself and that he encourages it in others. He must stress the fact that each professional person, while accepting that there is much to be done in any profession, also serves his profession, his society, and his own self when he contributes on the basis of this kind of dedication. The administrator functions sometimes actively, sometimes as a catalyst, to establish a climate that enables the inspiration of the contribution to overshadow the frustration due to lack of present wisdom. To repeat Rogers' comment in Chapter 1: "We know how to provide conditions of leadership which will be followed by personality growth in the members of the group, as well as by increased productivity and improved group spirit." Here we are using the idea of "personality growth" as concomitant with creating a climate for the dedicated person's professional growth.

The Quality of Task Competency and Prescriptive Inferences

Only after the professional person has developed ethical insight and diagnostic wisdom can he be considered competent in his task. Consequently, prescriptions regarding a profession, including such things as standards and screening as well as training, need to be made by practitioners in the profession. While it is true that the society must safeguard the health of its citizens, it can do so only by setting standards. It cannot prescribe with any degree of insight the training necessary for developing ethical insights and diagnostic wisdom which will lead to task competency and accurate prescriptive inferences in the medical profession. The same thing applies to nursing, although there is certainly overlap between medicine and nursing. Only the professional nurse can specify the dedication required of nurses. Likewise, professors of social welfare have to do the same for their discipline, as do professors of psychology and professional people in education, even though, as can readily be seen, there is considerable congruity among all three professions.

The doctor does not prescribe the same remedy for all respiratory ailments; the architect does not design all buildings in exactly the same fashion. The dentist diagnoses the needs of each of his patients; the attorney, the needs of his clients. When the prescription is made before the diagnosis is obtained, the practitioner is functioning at a naïve level. However, when diagnosis is available and accurate and forms the basis for prescription, he is working at a very sophisticated level. At this point the profession is establishing standards possessing the stamp of a true profession.[9]

[9] In a later chapter we will examine more carefully the diagnostic wisdom that needs to be established in the administration profession. We will also try to show how prescriptive inferences must rest upon diagnosis.

However, the teacher and administrator are dealing, not with health, teeth, building, or even man before law, but with the most complex of all things, the development of the psyche of a human being – his intellectual and emotional components, his social conscience, and the control of his instinctual drives. Therefore, the teaching profession needs to be especially aware that its prescriptive inferences must rest firmly on diagnostic wisdom. When prescription precedes careful diagnosis, unintentional harm may be done.

School Tasks. Let us suggest some tasks that have been undertaken in the past by various schools and raise some questions concerning the diagnostic wisdom involved.

> *The Task:* To communicate more adequately with parents regarding the success or failure of their children.
>
> *The Prescription:* In many schools in the country notices are sent out when youngsters fail a subject. In some places these are called "cinch notices"; in other places "notices of failure," etc. Generally speaking they are sent with the idea that the parents are entitled to know when their youngster is not doing well in school and failing to meet standards.
>
> *The Diagnosis:* However, evidence suggests that most parents are painfully aware when their children are failing. While they may not be able to do much about it, a notice of this kind may only increase their anxiety and in certain cases force them either into immobility or to poor solutions. Further, research indicates that youngsters respond to failure with additional failure and to success with additional success (see Chapter 10, p. 142).
>
> *Conclusion:* The diagnosis shows that, far from communicating adequately with either the parents or the students, in general this approach tends to create less adequate interchange because it does not set up a rapport between the school and the home and may often do just the reverse. Therefore, the task has not been achieved.

There is a significant error in this approach, suggested theoretically early in the chapter: first things have not been placed first. Before any task in a profession, such as education, can be undertaken, the data available regarding this task must be carefully diagnosed in an integrated fashion. Only then can the prescription properly be established. Consider the following procedure:

> *The Task:* To communicate more adequately with parents regarding the success or failure of their children.
>
> *The Diagnosis:* Remains the same.
>
> *The Prescription:* Since parents are traumatized by "cinch notices" and since students continue to fail under these conditions, it would be far better to explain a student's failure in a personal conference where administrator or teacher and parent could work from strengths to help the child toward greater success. If notices are to be used, it might be wiser to send out notices of commendation to all students who are doing well and thus to increase both parents' and students' motivation for success. Even without consultation with parents concerning failure, such notices would carry this information to other parents by "omission" rather than "commission."

The first example, in which prescription precedes diagnosis, is all too common. But when insight and diagnosis precede the prescription and are used with professional skill, the prescription becomes more professional as well.

One further example: In the administrative task there is much need to collect data regarding ability, value structure, and perception. This is important, for it points the way in which the administrator can function. It reveals areas of understanding that he may have overlooked and suggests processes that might never have occurred to him. However, many instruments in use at present are crude and often quite threatening; in trying to achieve one purpose, perhaps the understanding of values, one may destroy or threaten a more important facet of the human psyche, the individual's need for privacy. Thus the user of these instruments plunges into areas which even many trained clinical psychologists would tend to avoid in a consultation. Let us examine some of the questions on one such instrument:

> *The Task:* To understand the personality structure of an individual more clearly.
>
> *Prescription:* Use of an instrument involving 150 questions, including the following:
>
> I have diarrhea once a month or more.
> My sex life is satisfactory.
> I have had no difficulty in starting or holding my bowel movements.
> I am very strongly attracted by members of my own sex.
> I believe in the Second Coming of Christ.
> I cry easily.
> I believe my sins are unpardonable.
> I am worried about sex matters.
> I have used alcohol excessively.
>
> *Diagnosis:* Although this is an outstanding test and has excellent predictability built into it, many of the questions interfere with the dignity and privacy of the individual. We have used this test as a screening officer and found it remarkably accurate for diagnosing certain personality difficulties. On the other hand, it is possible that successful diagnosis was due to the careful analysis of the patterns of answers by the clinicians and statisticians who constructed the various subscales. Further, since it is our thesis that the dignity of the individual is of paramount importance, it seems to us that tests will have to be devised that give similar kinds of data but do not interfere with the dignity and privacy of the individual.

If then we begin with the above diagnostic premise we may mention three such personality tests, all of which are not very time-consuming and could be standardized: the Curtis Sentence Completion test, the Stein Sentence-Completion test, and the Harrison-Gough adjective check list. In addition, the well-known Rorschach Test can get at personality dynamics without ordinarily being too anxiety-provoking. Of course, the latter requires an expert to administer and interpret, and its administration and analysis are both very time-consuming. But most important of all, none of these approaches is particularly threatening.

Prescription as a Form of Individualization. We have discussed the fact that the interaction between the practitioner and his client must have a personal quality which enables the former to understand the special circumstances surrounding the latter. *Variability of approach* founded on diagnosis leads also to *prescriptive inferences* that have meaning. The doctor does not treat all patients alike, nor does the lawyer analyze all cases alike or the teacher *teach all pupils alike.* Each keeps in mind that the individual, his needs, and his interests have to be understood if the prescription supplied is to make sense and be applicable to the person being served.

In education particularly, there are great difficulties in this task. More than an assembly-line approach is called for. At the present time we are looking for cheaper ways to finance education; rather, we should look for better ways to finance education. We should be seeking conditions in which closer human relations can be established — smaller rather than larger classes, for example. The society ought to be willing to proceed on the premise that early diagnosis and early prescription help children to become more useful and adequate citizens later, and such investment "pays off" to the state in actual financial return as well as in the preservation of human dignity. In the absence of continued attention to these vital matters, education can scarcely be called a profession, for personal professional services are unavailable. To discuss whether a counselor shall have 200 or 300 or 400 counselees means nothing. No one can "counsel" 200 people adequately. To discuss a high school having over 120 teachers without some decentralization has no meaning for the administrator. He cannot personalize his services for so large a number and therefore cannot serve them professionally.[10]

The Quality of Training in Depth or Continuing Professional Growth

The professional person commits himself to learning his profession as a lifelong task. We have discussed this at the beginning of the chapter. It is sufficient to say here that a profession has as one of its primary purposes the accumulation of knowledge; thus succeeding generations of practitioners find they have greater and greater amounts of knowledge to learn and to understand and must continue to learn throughout their careers.

Learning as an Integrated Process. An important aspect of this training needs to be considered. The professional person may, if he has achieved insights and wisdom, develop learning as an *integrated process.* But many professionals seemingly perceive their profession somewhat in isolation and have difficulty crossing professional lines. The doctor finds it hard to conceive of himself as a social scientist; the attorney, as a purveyor of physical and mental health; the engineer, as a person who influences the civilization as a political scientist. It is often difficult for the teacher to see himself as other than a teacher of chemistry, or of English, etc., or even as other than a kindergarten teacher or a high school teacher. The administrator may have a hard time seeing himself as anything but an elementary principal, a high school principal, a business manager, or a superintendent.

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[10] In Chapter 19 we will examine one structure that could facilitate a more adequate kind of professional relationship between the teacher and the administrator, and the pupil and the teacher.

Hierarchical notions may arise in a profession which do damage to it. It is not uncommon in education for a shop teacher to be considered a "cut below" the teacher of math, the principal a "cut below" the superintendent, etc. Some educators may be caught in a conflict between subject-centered and pupil-centered ideas and ideals. In this case teachers may find themselves forsaking the end (the autonomy and dignity of the pupil) for the means to that end (the curriculum). Since our society is committed to preserving the autonomy of the individual, when teachers find themselves preserving the dignity of the subject, ambivalence and conflict may ensue. Indeed, a secondary teacher caught between respect for his subject and respect for the adolescent is likely to be engaged in an anxiety-provoking struggle, not only with the profession, but with himself as well.

On the other hand, when learning is regarded as an integrated process encompassing not just one's own field, but the insights and understandings developed by other disciplines, one may begin to move away from such provincialism. When pedagogy is respected as an applied social science comprised of all the disciplines, when education is embraced as a profession, then some of the difficulty involved in lifelong training disappears. The vast accumulation of knowledge necessary for excellence in teaching and administration can be put into a more consistent and digestible framework. Greater accumulation of knowledge becomes more than the piecemeal gaining of more facts for facts' sake and begins to fit into a pattern which the individual is able to integrate into a system of values. From this he can distill the wisdom to perceive himself, his profession, and society with much clearer vision.

When we look about us at the opportunities, both formal and informal, both in the colleges and in the society, for increasing understanding and the ability to move along this integrated route, we can only marvel that such opportunities are so largely ignored. Aesthetic experiences surround us. The intellectual dialogue is available, in formal and informal settings. The pursuit of scientific acumen can take place through classes, through forums, through the mass media. These things are with us, yet because the weight of the information is awesome *the attempt at integration is neglected* and wisdom remains beyond our reach. Add to this the experience of each man in terms of recreation, in terms of his obligation to himself, to his family, and to society, in terms of the richness of all of his real and fancied activities, and it is surprising that there has not been more movement in this direction.

Contemplation. Finally, continuing professional growth involves one important aspect which has been almost universally neglected: *contemplation.* It is here perhaps that we fail to appreciate the significance of the contribution each man can make to himself and to others in pursuing wisdom. It is here perhaps that we fail to recognize what each man can obtain from others. Through contemplation one realizes that hierarchical notions develop in every profession, that the liberal arts teacher may need to labor long to become "liberal" in the professional sense, that the social scientist may indeed lack social perceptions until he has attained wisdom. For the professional person lifelong learning, then, may be as dependent upon contemplation, self-study, and integration as upon the reading of authorities, the collection of outside data, and research in the field.

Perhaps Judge Learned Hand expressed this thought more simply and adequately when in the speech delivered at Central Park, New York City, in 1944 he said, "... The spirit of liberty is the spirit that is not too sure it is right." (To us, this statement describes the groping toward self-perception and ethical insight.) "... The spirit of liberty is the spirit that seeks to understand the minds of other men and women." (To us, this involves diagnostic reasoning, the growth of diagnostic wisdom, and the growing ability to understand humanity.) "... The spirit of liberty is the spirit which weighs their interest alongside his own without bias. ..." (To us, this is the movement toward task competency and prescription set up in light of the diagnosis.) "And, now in that spirit of an America that has never been and may never be ... except as the conscience and courage of Americans created it ... in that spirit lie hidden in some form the aspirations of us all." (Here we have the lifelong growth toward social maturity and wisdom.)

Judge Learned Hand spoke eloquently and to the point. He was a great attorney, a great jurist, a great social scientist, and a great teacher. He represented, in no small measure, the integration that the truly professional person attains.

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Education and Administration as a Profession

In Chapter 14 we discussed the characteristics of a profession, treating all the professions and noting the similarities among them. It is our purpose now to apply our findings to education and to educational administration. In so doing, we will of necessity examine specific practices of the administrator as a professional, with the idea that the principal is a teacher and resource person to teachers in the same sense that the teacher is an instructor and resource person to students.

Therefore, examples pertaining especially to administration will have meaning for the teacher, and examples involving professional practice in teaching will have implications for administration. The importance of this chapter lies in determining the relationship of the characteristics of a profession to those practices which are unique to the profession of education and educational administration.

THE COLLEGE AS A PARTNER IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Much recruitment probably begins through early contact with insightful and empathic teachers in school. A master's study now in progress in which teachers are being asked what influenced them to go into teaching shows that one or two of the teachers who were outstanding in the subjects' minds played a significant role in determining their future.[1]

Further, children in certain subcultures are motivated to become teachers by their desire to achieve upward mobility. Studies have shown that public school teachers generally come more often from upper-lower- or lower-middle-class groups than from upper socioeconomic strata. But although early influence of the family and school experiences may be of great significance and actually have implications for training purposes, they are not at the present time seen as agencies in the development of the professional educator.

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[1] Elvin W. Yost, "Persons Who Influenced Teachers at Fern Bacon Junior High School to Become Teachers," unpublished M.A. thesis (in process).

The first of the agencies directly influencing the formal training of the teacher and the administrator is the college. Its assignment covers screening, establishment of preprofessional training courses, professional training, and experience preliminary to practice (i.e., practice teaching, field service, and internship programs). Often it also assumes the obligation of placement. It continues its responsibility in graduate work including graduate degrees, extension, and consultative services. It moves even farther, into the field of research and the collection of data for widening the scope of the profession. Indeed, the role of the college is gradually becoming more and more extensive; from offering the two-year normal school courses it has moved to the four-year baccalaureate degree. Now the five-year training program is common. In addition, many institutions are granting the M.A. and the Ph.D. as well as the Ed.D. in education. Most of this has occurred within one generation, and progress, although sometimes retarded by lack of understanding, has been remarkably swift if viewed historically.

At present there is an ongoing dialogue, as indeed there always will be, concerning how the college should function in the future. Who shall train the teacher and who shall train the administrator? Who shall grant the A.B., M.A., and doctorate? How much shall subject matter be emphasized? How many professional courses shall be established? Even the kinds of research have been questioned, and standards for any and all facets of the training program of the professional educator are constantly under scrutiny. This is a salutary situation. If there are difficulties, however, they have been created by at least two factors. The first is the naïveté of the profession itself. This is not surprising in view of the fact that the profession has such a short history and therefore has had little time for the collection of data and knowledge as compared with some of the other professions. But a problem more difficult to handle is the persistent confusion of the society over what constitutes its legitimate rights to set minimum standards regarding social goals for the school and establishment of professional insights and competencies for teachers and school administrators. Because of this confusion, the profession has never really had, except in rare instances, sufficient autonomy to be self-determining and so has yet to be granted full professional status.

Developing Professional Characteristics in Education and Educational Administration

We have discussed in the previous chapter ethical insight, diagnostic wisdom, and task competency. It would seem that a primary task of the college in its training program would be to undertake the development of such professional characteristics. First the college should examine carefully all its procedures and question whether they lead toward these ideals or not. Do they enhance the dignity of the student and increase his pride in the profession? In the screening process does the student feel more or less adequate? In interaction with his adviser is his pride in the profession increased or does he perceive this procedure as a necessary evil through which he must pass before he becomes either a teacher or an administrator?

These matters are intimately related to the administrative and instructional practices carried on by all the professional people and throughout the course work in the professional program. The kinds of realities asked of the student, professor, and administrator; the kinds of service they are to receive; the kinds of truths they are asked to pursue – all this may appear to be highly theoretical, but it is possible to establish some logical sequence by which professional qualities can be instilled, for all professions including education and educational administration.

Administrative Systems and Ethical Insight. Much remains to be done in the area of autonomy. Consider the following: "One constantly encounters dissatisfaction among young faculty members on the ground that they are not told clearly what is expected of them for promotion. . . ."[2]

Although many administrators recognize that personnel practices seldom enhance the autonomy of the teacher, present efforts to improve the situation seem to us to be naïve. As a matter of fact Castetter lists a number of appraisal techniques which we find highly superficial, e.g., check lists, rating scales, review of lesson plans, etc.[3]

Perhaps the matter is less complicated than we believe. Actual data suggest that not many teachers are incompetent. A recent survey conducted by the California State Department of Education showed that only between 3 and 4 per cent of the teachers in the state were dismissed in that year. But administrative organizations are greatly, perhaps excessively, concerned nevertheless, and evaluative instruments seem to be punitive and to have a divisive, rather than unifying, effect.

This is only one of the matters regarding administrative systems which need to be explored. Others are the function of a faculty in the selection of administrators, assignment, types of research, etc. (see Chapter 17).

Possibly the profession that receives the most criticism is the profession of education – not only from the general public but from teachers and educational administrators, for they reflect in large measure the climate around them. Highest on the list of most unethical practices in the Final Report of the

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[2] Harold W. Dodds, *The Academic President – Educator or Caretaker?* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1962), p. 141.

[3] William B. Castetter, *Administering the School Personnel Program* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1962), p. 286.

Committee on Ethics of the Profession in July 1929 were "Gossiping about and criticizing other teachers" and "Slurring the profession."[4] Three decades later professors and public school teachers still were "slurring the profession" in the report to a California study committee.

> The California State Federation of Teachers, represented by its state vice-president, Dr. Maurice Englander, minimized the importance of professional education courses in the preparation of competent teachers. He told the committee:
>
> "The differences in teaching method proceed mainly from differences in character and personality and differences in educational philosophies. They do not proceed from what passes as scientific knowledge of the varying process about which too little is known to be regarded as certain knowledge.
>
> "Schools of education have not thus far demonstrated a rigor of academic discipline sufficient to warrant the State's confidence in their capacity to establish respectable professional standards. Therefore, in respect of standards, the state department's proposal marks little actual improvement over the present system."[5]

So, although the ethical ideal is to respect the various disciplines and teaching as a discipline, actual practice is often at variance with it. Indeed, it has been our observation that there is not only a hierarchy in the professions but a hierarchy in the disciplines as well. A rule of thumb would go something like this: The longer the history of the discipline, the more respect it commands. Another continuum would place the humanities first, then the sciences, then the applied professions. Among the latter, medicine, dentistry, law, engineering have a considerable degree of respect while social welfare and teaching fall behind. To accept the idea of ethical insight, it would seem necessary to eliminate hierarchical concepts as far as possible.

The College's Role Regarding Diagnostic Wisdom. All professors and all disciplines in a college should feed pertinent data to this applied social science: education. Also, research becomes more useful as it is transmitted and applied in practice. Since this involves the teaching act, it follows that even the professor whose primary interest is in research needs to have at his disposal some means of transmitting data to those who are engaged in utilizing them, either in subsequent research or in the classroom. Needless to say, it becomes the role of the college administration to provide opportunity for research and for transmitting its findings to all, including students of administration.

Also important is the continuity of such study and the continued acceptance by both administrator and professor that closure is to be only temporary. Without the recognition of this factor, the creative diagnostic act cannot be said to exist, for it is in the nature of creativity that data are consistently and constantly re-evaluated, re-integrated, and re-interpreted. It is also in the nature of diagnostic skill that communication is kept as free and clear as possible, and that from the administrator to the professor and the professor to the student of administration it is not confined only to "channels" but has an intimate and personal quality that transcends the notion of it so often found on the college campus.

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[4] Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, *The Teacher and School Organization* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 3rd ed., 1958), p. 520.

[5] Senate Fact Finding Committee on Education, *Report to the Legislature 1961 General Session* (Sacramento: Senate of the State of California, 1961), p. 41.

Lest such communication seem impossible of achievement, let us keep in mind that the ratio of administrators to teachers is probably not more than 15 or 20 to 1 under a decentralized system. And the ratio of administrative students to professors in all disciplines is much lower. In Section D we will outline a process for decentralization as it might take place in a large secondary school. It is sufficient to say here that if the ideal of personal contact were at the heart of administration-professor relationships and professor-administrative student relationships, education and diagnostic wisdom as well as the administrative process would, we believe, begin to flourish.

The College's Role Regarding Task Competency. The movement toward broad rather than narrow fields has been proceeding for some time. More and more texts are exploring the possibilities of integrating into the course work a holistic approach rather than an atomistic one. Although there may be setbacks from time to time, the general tendency is to think in terms of the social and psychological foundations in education, the relatedness of elementary and secondary education, and the importance of educational leadership.

Understanding of the value of work experience in related fields is growing also, and students of educational administration are being encouraged more and more to have experience in social welfare, recreation, and probation fields. Such programs, however, are still in their infancy.

The College and Continuing Professional Growth

Graduate programs are expanding in practically all schools and divisions of education, in response partly to the colleges themselves, partly to the desire of the students, but in no small measure to the demand of the society. Fewer and fewer states accept a teacher without an A.B. degree. Many are requiring a master's or the equivalent. In some districts it is impossible to become an administrator without at least a master's degree. Should one wish a central office position of superintendent or assistant superintendent, many boards of education look with favor only upon a Ph.D. or an Ed.D. Regardless of the desirability of the doctorate for these positions, the society is beginning to demand it. The college can do no less than to supply this demand. To do anything else would be to ignore the cultural pressures which any society brings to bear upon its institutions of higher learning.

Colleges are reaching more and more into districts and supplying experiences, course work, and consultative services based upon the districts' interests and needs. This trend will persist. Moreover, as extension programs continue to integrate across the disciplines, the educator will become more aware of the data related to education which come to him from other sources.

Finally, colleges need to provide opportunities for both professor and student of administration to evaluate and analyze their own thinking and to organize it in new patterns. This has long been a neglected area. Seemingly we rely too much on so-called "external" evidence for proof of successful evaluation. We have too little faith in the use of contemplation as well as interaction to produce evaluative criteria that are meaningful and insights that strengthen wisdom. Until institutions recognize astute appraisal as part of a planned program, some of the tasks they undertake will fall short of the mark.

THE DISTRICT AND PROFESSIONALISM IN EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A Brief Analysis of the District

While we are not primarily concerned here with the organization of state, county, and local districts, before we begin an analysis of the responsibilities of the district in developing professional education and administration, we should mention the various districts and some generally agreed-on functions of the districts.

It is the concensus that the states have overall responsibility for education. On the other hand, it is also widely agreed that the state's primary function is to set minimum standards rather than to set ceilings.[6] These standards relate to the health and safety of the pupils as well as their social and emotional welfare. They also regulate professional preparation of teachers, administrators, and all others who work with children in the public schools.[7] In addition the state sets minimum standards in areas of curriculum, for building construction, and in the physical facilities for student and professional personnel. The state must financially support a program of education to the best of its ability. Here it moves away from the notion of minimum standards to the idea of supporting programs which the local districts can prove are the result of establishing better than minimum standards (see below). Finally, the state provides research facilities and personnel to maintain an ongoing program of data compilation and evaluation of district programs throughout the state.

The intermediate or county unit is a facilitating unit carrying out the minimum standards set by the state department of education and helping districts to establish standards above the minimum in the various areas just mentioned.[8] It may also supply services usually provided by local districts if the latter are too small or impoverished to supply them.

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[6] Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, *Introduction to Educational Administration* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962), pp. 28–31, 36.

[7] Emery Stoops and M. L. Rafferty, *Practices and Trends in School Administration* (Boston: Ginn & Company, 1961), pp. 347–360.

[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 38–54.

The local district (unless it is too small) is usually a semi-autonomous unit complying with the minimum standards set by the state or raising them, according to the unique needs of its own students and local area. It provides for its own in-service training and supervision. It arranges for the proper administration and curriculum development; indeed, it performs all the services allocated to the state with the added responsibility of so organizing its facilities as to meet or to exceed state minimum requirements regarding facilities, financial support, guidance, and curriculum.

All of the agencies have two basic functions in common. They all establish operational units to carry out these programs and evaluative procedures to ascertain the degree of their success or failure.

This is not an exhaustive analysis. Such a study would be more germane to a text dealing with state, county, and district organization. It will, however, answer our purposes here.[9]

Suggested District Programs Enhancing Professionalism

Evaluation. In order to create local districts in which a professional climate prevails and in which self-perception is encouraged, more sophisticated approaches to evaluation, among other things, must be found. At the present time most of our evaluation systems contain such items as are indicated in Chapter 5. Yet the basic purposes for evaluation are as follows (from a district document):

Principles and Purposes of Teacher Evaluation

1. The evaluation of teachers has one major goal: a better educational program through improved instruction and staff growth.
2. A well organized program for staff growth necessitates continuous evaluation of all members of the professional staff.
3. Evaluation of teaching success should be cooperative, the teacher accepting responsibility for self-evaluation and having full knowledge of any administrative evaluation. Professional competence should be evaluated according to standards accepted by the teaching profession.

In the end check lists are usually used, and only superficial traits are checked, which, we have indicated elsewhere, may have very little to do with actual professional performance. As a matter of fact, a more professional approach would move in the direction of dealing with the interpersonal relations between the teacher and his students. These might be more difficult to measure, but they would be more in keeping with the establishment of a professional climate. Consider these items:[10]

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[9] The author is indebted to Professor James Neil for assistance with the above.

[10] From Benjamin M. Sachs *et al.*, "Interpersonal Relationships as a Measure of Teacher Effectiveness," San Rafael (Calif.) City Schools, 1956.

Interpersonal Relations as a Measure of Teacher Effectiveness

A. A professional teacher can be described as follows:
   1. These teachers enjoy teaching.
   2. They are relaxed, have a sense of humor, and find the task in general pleasurable and less arduous than would others.
   3. Their growing ability to see the possibilities in all children regardless of I.Q. or the group from which they come. Their use of praise and the acceptance of the basic worthwhileness of children and people.
   4. The confidence and pleasure expressed by most parents regarding what their youngsters are achieving.
   5. The establishment of internal rather than external discipline and the feeling of general understanding among the children and between the teacher and the children.
   6. Profitable as well as pleasurable experiences together.
   7. Ability to take cues from children and to help develop their leadership potential.
   8. The ability to recognize one's own limitations and, therefore, to indicate that the failure of any child may be the teacher's responsibility.

B. A non-professional teacher can be described as follows:
   1. An inability to invest in children.
   2. Somewhat fearful or rejecting of children.
   3. Rigid external discipline, or none at all with attendant over-emphasis on arbitrary standards or values.
   4. Loss of cooperation among the students, or cooperation that is almost entirely teacher-dominated.
   5. Little or no leadership developed in the children.
   6. A punitive attitude toward children's failures and the general lack of a sense of humor.
   7. A lack of ability to see the possibilities in all children. Usually see ability in terms of I.Q. or group from which they come.
   8. A failure to recognize one's own limitations and, therefore, most frequently placing the blame for the failure on the child himself.

Rules and Regulations. Similar conclusions are applicable to rules and regulations. Where rules are specific and very detailed, as in some teacher handbooks, professionalism is reduced. The following excerpts are from a handbook currently in use by a large district.

> All teachers are to be on duty in *classrooms* at 7:45 A.M. each day and remain in classrooms until 3:15 P.M. unless they have been assigned a special assignment for the week. . . .
>
> . . . Women — conservative dress, with hose. Men — dress shirts, ties and coats. Suits or sport clothing, but not sports shirts. Dress shirts may have short sleeves during this period of time. Sport shirts are not acceptable apparel.

Statements such as these have a tendency to belittle the professional person and to give the professional task a "job" orientation.

Professional Interaction. On the other hand, it is possible to set up professional interaction which engenders a professional climate:

Some Premises Regarding Professional Interaction Involving Administration

1. The emphasis on strengths rather than concentration on weaknesses.
    a. The use of supportive comments before group and about others.
    b. Use of meetings for the presentation of strengths.
    c. Humor that is supportive rather than ego destructive.
2. Minority opinion encouraged.
    a. Decisions should not be made before the group and the minority are heard out.
    b. No issue is really ever closed.
    c. If an individual is voted down he has the right to repeat his position without fear.
    d. A personalized acceptance and support. Not "Defend your position."
3. Ability to recap without judgment.
    a. Extends discussion until all sides are heard. Does not "choke off" discussion.
    b. Helps group to incorporate all ideas held by group. This is related to acceptance of minority.
4. Ability to extend lines of communication.
    a. Leader involves many groups and new personnel.
    b. Information must be made available in sufficient time for adequate interaction.
5. Ability to invest in the group by participating as an individual.
    a. Anyone in a leadership role should see himself as a peer in the participation.
    b. Status should have less meaning than issues and ideas.
    c. New ideas always welcome.
    d. Should not repress his own ideas.
    e. Should also know when to sit back and listen.
    f. Able to tolerate and integrate the ambiguity of many diverse ideas.
6. Implementing group decisions.
    a. Without implementation, all is busy work and the group falls apart.
    b. Implementation cuts across line and staff.
    c. The leader often needs to carry this out or to help the group to implement the decision.
    d. Group indicates method of how to do this.
    e. Chairman reports. If not, the participants must have the right to probe for implementation.

Such procedures take more time but are more professional and ultimately more effective. They enable leaders and followers to exchange roles at times and so create greater unity within the profession. When the contribution to the entire group is seen as more significant than status, the profession, which is the group reason for the group's existence, is enhanced. Further, the creative energies of the group are released and a respect for professional unity based on pride in the profession is built up. Since there are many and varied opinions, solutions reached are often a form of compromise. The acceptance of compromise is also the acceptance of human limitations. Interaction of this kind should increase respect for the autonomy of the classroom teacher. It bridges the gap between elementary and secondary teacher and transcends the sterile argument about teaching method – formal or informal. It moves toward the insights and procedures discussed here which enhance the profession as a whole.

Toward Diagnostic Wisdom. The district ought to be committed to an ongoing in-service program based on the above premises. In this role the district functions to assist the teacher in becoming a better diagnostician. The following excerpt from a current senior high school handbook illustrates a naïve administrative policy:

Gum Chewing Policy

> Gum chewing will not be permitted on the L.O.U.H.S. campus from 8:00 A.M. until 4:00 P.M. on school days. Teachers will report student violators to the office for disciplinary action. Chewing gum at school is considered deliberate disobedience.
>
> The penalties for violating this rule are as follows:
>
> Gum chew #1 – Student, counselor conference, write a one page essay on gum chewing and copy these rules.
> Gum chew #2 – Student, counselor conference, detention after school and a letter to the parents.
> Gum chew #3 – Parent, student, counselor conference and after school detention.
> Gum chew #4 – Suspension from school. Parent, student, counselor conference.

Such a mechanistic approach to the adolescent can only make contact between student and teacher superficial and impersonal. Further, it reduces the diagnostic role of the teacher to slavish following of rules and regulations set up by the administration and thus eliminates much of the professional aspect of education, for it does not permit individual, sophisticated diagnosis.

More insightful approaches would entail meeting adolescent developmental needs:[11]

Developmental Needs of Adolescents

A. As regards the "Peer Group":
  1. Achieving new and more mature relations with age-mates of both sexes.
  2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role.

B. As regards the "Development of Personal Independence":
  1. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.
  2. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults.
  3. Achieving assurance of economic independence.

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[11] Robert J. Havighurst, *Human Development and Education* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1953).

    4. Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
    5. Preparing for marriage and family life.
C. As regards "Developing a Philosophy of Life":
    1. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.
    2. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior.

When the administrator uses such material as a point of departure and discusses possible diagnostic premises based on such insights, he begins to function as a resource person to teachers. When the district encourages the development of this kind of procedure, it encourages a more diagnostic orientation and more professionalism.

Not only does the developmental approach give room for the teacher to diagnose the situation; it has an integrative aspect as well. Havighurst, using this technique, is able to integrate material of the curriculum into six logical areas of concern:[12]

A. Knowledge of the Social World: The history and the present facts of government, . . . the family, religion, . . . world interdependence, . . . etc.
B. Knowledge of the Physical World: The origin and development of the physical universe, the structure of matter, geography, weather, the nature of animal and plant life, . . . etc.
C. Knowledge of Self: The body and its machinery, how the human being grows, diet, disease prevention, emotions and their relations to behavior, sex, and reproduction.
D. Esthetic Appreciation: Music, art, architecture, literature, drama.
E. Ethical Values: The nature and values of democracy, the ethical systems of the world's great religions, the ethical aspects of everyday behavior in school and community.
F. Physical Skills: The skills necessary for competence in ordinary games. The skills of homemaking. Vocational skills.

The simplified case study (see Chapter 14) can add to the diagnostic wisdom of teachers and administrators. Districts could well encourage each teacher and administrator to study two or three youngsters, utilizing the case method. Among others, the Maryland Child Study Approach has been found useful.[13]

Various research projects can also be used to increase the diagnostic wisdom of teachers and administrators. It is not always necessary for the teacher himself to undertake research. However, we have in our files at least 50 different topics which could well be utilized in this kind of approach to classes or individuals and would help teachers arrive at greater insights. Among them are

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[12] *Ibid.*, pp. 102–108.

[13] Bernard Peck and Daniel A. Prescott, "The Program at the Institute for Child Study, The University of Maryland," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 37, No. 2 (October 1958), 115–122.

Sociometrics
Perception and Personality
Culture, Subculture, and Behavior
The Learning Process
Motivation
The Teacher and Guidance
The Curriculum and Guidance
Creativity in Children
Creative English
The Self
The Utilization of Differences
Types of Control

All of these could be the subject of research and/or discussion. They could be included in an ongoing in-service program involving diagnostic sophistication or to establish an integrated program beginning with the student in the K–12 range and exploring his development, ways of learning, and needed skills.

Research, Consultative Service, and Sabbatical Leave. In order to develop an integrated program the district must be willing to devote more time and money than it has up to now to research, consultative service, and sabbatical leaves, among other things. At the present time consultative service is on a semi-emergency basis and concerned mostly with "remedial reading," the "gifted" program, etc. In an ongoing program such service would be an integral part of the program.

Also, at present sabbatical leave is a kind of reward for faithful service rather than a pause for the study, research, and contemplation that every professional person needs in order to maintain his professional excellence. As far as writing is concerned, we know of relatively few districts with a publications committee to encourage teachers to express their ideas on paper for purposes of analysis, discussion, and argumentation; nor do we know of many places where the creative writing of teachers is deliberately fostered. In contrast, some districts do encourage writing for a district newsletter as a public relations project! But if one wishes to write either professionally or creatively, he must do so on his own. Success in such an endeavor is, of course, rewarded. But the more professional approach would seem to be to establish a planned program to stimulate this kind of activity, since it leads directly to self-study, self-evaluation, research, and contemplation and is a commitment to learning as a lifelong task.

Variety of Experience. Finally, districts, especially large unified districts and those in the county structure, are usually quite complex. They may contain within their boundaries elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. They often have upper, middle, and lower socioeconomic groups. They may also include various ethnic groups in their student population. All these factors afford teachers a unique opportunity to learn professional task competency through experience. Yet few districts, as far as we know, have a planned program designed to take advantage of all this variety. Teachers holding middle-class values and academic viewpoints still tend to accept students like themselves and to reject students and parents whose values and outlook are different.[14] It would seem that diagnostic wisdom, prescriptive inferences, and task competency could be immeasurably increased and professional stature raised if carefully organized assignments to serve various groups were made, subject, of course, to the full knowledge and approval of the teacher involved. This sort of thing would be not unlike the clinical experience of the practicing physician, or the broad experience of an attorney when he serves in the capacity of "public defender."

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[14] Sheldon Glueck, *The Problem of Delinquency* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1959).

HOW THE INDIVIDUAL MAY ENHANCE PROFESSIONALISM

There is a difference between "individualism" and growth of an individual's self-perception. People have tended to confuse democratic practice with "rugged individualism." Benne has this to say:

> The methodological correlate of individualism which democratic ideology leads us to oppose is the elevation of unchecked private, individual judgment as an ultimate arbiter in the control of human conduct. That a wise social policy will establish areas of privacy for persons and voluntary associations within the society is undoubtedly true. In such areas private judgment may rule. But the determination of the proper boundaries of these areas must, in an interdependent society, be based on a collective judgment. The rights of private judgment can be defensibly defined and enforced on a democratic basis only by processes of collaborative planning.[15]

As the individual becomes increasingly aware of the dignity of the student, the importance of the family, and the importance of the school, and in order to learn to understand himself as a person, he must raise certain questions: What do I mean to people? What do people mean to me? Do I know and accept my limitations? Am I aware of the strengths and contributions of others? How can I develop greater faith in human dignity? These questions are not readily answered; they require lifelong learning and self-study as well as research. They require, too, an ability to subordinate personal bias to insight and factual data, to eschew rules when rules do not apply.

> A mother came rushing in to a principal.
>
> "My daughter has forgotten her arithmetic book," she said anxiously, "and I must have it in order for her to do her homework."
>
> "But," said the principal, 'it is against the rules to release materials after school hours."
>
> "Oh, but my husband will beat my daughter if he finds that she is not doing her homework."

Under such conditions, of course, the rule immediately changes, for the child's welfare is more important than the rule. Necessary as it is in a school of some 800 pupils to have such a rule in order to avoid confusion after school hours, it is also necessary to know when human dignity dictates that the rule should be broken. This is what we mean by personal responsibility to the student and to the family.

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[15] Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin, *The Planning of Change* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1961), pp. 146–147.

It is necessary to recognize that, however mistaken the parent may be, his investment in the child is generally far greater than the investment made by any teacher or administrator. Therefore, the parent is a major partner in the task of helping the child toward maturity, and it is much more important for the administrator to assist the parent and help him toward increased autonomy and insight than to assume the role of critic. It is up to him to achieve more understanding of all data available and more personalized contact with parents.

Many people are still confused over the difference between insight and status or tradition. Very often cherished beliefs are status or tradition oriented. In other words, present actions seem justified because they are part of past behavior. In this connection, parents have been advised not to help children with reading, but it is impossible to prevent them from doing so. On a number of occasions parents have been charged with interfering with the task of the school. This, too, will or will not happen depending on the way the parent perceives learning in general and the school in particular. There is no way of avoiding the influence of the parents, whether for good or ill. When this fact is accepted, the administrator can judge more adequately how he can serve both the parent and the child.

In order to achieve a holistic point of view the individual needs to study in an integrated fashion such matters as communication, education as a social science, education as a creative art, education as a personal force, the counseling function, and the instructional program.

Possible Organization for Individual Study

1. Communication: salutory and conflictual
    a. Home and school
    b. Secondary and elementary
    c. Teacher and administrator
    d. Teacher and teacher
    e. Pupil and teacher
    f. Pupil and pupil
2. Education as a social science: contributions and use of
    a. History
    b. Psychology
    c. Semantics
    d. Social anthropology
    e. Philosophy
    f. Political science
3. Education as a creative art: contributions and use of
    a. Art
    b. Music
    c. Poetry and drama

   d. Creative teaching
   e. Creative administration
4. Education as a personal force
   a. The student's goals
   b. The home's goals
   c. The teacher's goals
   d. The society's goals
5. The counseling function and pupil personnel services
   a. Grouping
   b. The gifted
   c. The mentally retarded
   d. For teachers
   e. For administrators
   f. Individual differences
   g. Student government
   h. Athletics
   i. Extra- and co-curricular activities
   j. Socialization

Such an approach involves a growing awareness of the nature of the profession. But many times the educator himself has limited his own interpretation of the profession so much that he has destroyed any true conception of it.

> Recently a district was asked to set aside $60,000 for the use of non-certificated personnel to handle supervision in the cafeteria and the play area. This request was made by a group of teachers on the assumption that such tasks were outside of the field of teaching and therefore outside of the field of education.

These teachers were actually asking that a person without a credential be assigned to a task which calls for an important professional skill: the ability to handle discipline wisely and carefully. It would be analogous for the physician to allow an orderly in the hospital to use a stethoscope or a hypodermic without supervision. On the other hand, such tasks could go to students in teacher training, as they are assigned to student nurses, interns, or other personnel in training for the medical professions. Many beginning teachers have difficulty with discipline, and it is not uncommon for experienced teachers to fail on occasion here. There may be other solutions to the problem of discipline in the cafeteria such as compensatory time. But certainly, to suggest that persons without any training can assume one of the most difficult tasks of the profession is to suggest what many in the society believe, that "anyone can teach."

Finally, the individual, as a professional person, not only must commit himself to learning as a lifelong task but must recognize that the undertaking of newer and more complex tasks in various areas of professional education is one of the best ways to achieve his own in-service education. It involves time and in certain instances the expenditure of money. As we have said before, we believe that this expenditure should be the responsibility of the district, but where it is not, the individual needs to make the commitment personally. His peers, his administrators, and his professors will give him counsel as he carries on continuing self-evaluation and self-improvement. But his own commitment is at the heart of his professional commitment.

THE BASIC TASK

We have discussed the three partners in the establishment of education as a profession: the college, the district, and the individual. Each has an important function. Each has countless important tasks. Each must continue to pursue insight and wisdom in order that the school as a social agency may attain the potency to function as many authorities, including Gunnar Myrdal, feel it should.

> We have in this book pointed to the need of radical improvement of the quality of labor that is unemployed or not productively employed, and we have stressed how this, in its turn, *necessitates huge investments in education, training, and retraining of workers, and how such investments to be effective and not wasteful have to be given the frame of a general attack on poverty.*[16]

Education still remains one of the few professions not requiring a professional certification of competence for private practice. A physician, an attorney, an architect, whether he practices privately or publicly, is certified as professionally competent. This is not in the case with an educator.

In other professions, solutions to the problems of rising costs of professional services have been forthcoming. Private health plans and hospitalization plans help defray expenditures for medical and nursing care. The advent of the public defender has brought legal assistance to those who cannot afford legal fees. "Medicare" will establish public funds to help the aged with medical expenses. Indeed, the whole social security and old age assistance system has given impetus to the growth of the public social agency while at the same time private social agencies, both case and groupwork oriented, burgeon, e.g., Big Brother associations, Girl Scouts, etc.

But schools seem to be taken somewhat for granted. In fact, criticism is often directed toward an administrator or board of education if some attempt is made to spend more money for individualization of instruction or the beautification of a school plant. An impasse exists in the obtaining of money for public schools because private schools wish to receive similar funds. Nowhere is an attempt made to seek different arrangements such as might be obtained through the choice between privately supported and publicly supported Medicare programs, with the citizen able to make his own decisions regarding them, and yet be assured of adequate professional educational standards as those which are imposed upon the medical profession.

At any rate, at present public school expenditures at the federal level are tied up in committees, forced to be augmented by devious means (e.g., a program for money for vocational education, etc.), while the states are harassed for ways and means of financing their public schools. This despite the fact that schools are, practically speaking, the only social agency outside the family which is preventative in nature and which prepares the next generation for its proper function as citizenry. This despite the fact that Jefferson, one of the founding fathers, declared that democracy could not exist without an enlightened citizenry.

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[16] Gunnar Myrdal, *Challenge to Affluence* (New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1963) pp. 83–84. Italics added.

Therefore, the three partners in the training of educators have three professional obligations:

1. The establishment of the acceptance of education as a profession through the certification of all practitioners as competent according to professional minimum standards, in the same sense as practitioners in all the other professions are certified as competent.
2. The establishment of a climate in the culture in which education is recognized as a social force of inestimable value to the society and to the next generation and in which, therefore, the holders of professional certification and the practitioners of the profession are paid well in both salary and social prestige.
3. The establishment of structures through which this important aspect of professional service to the next generation can be financed in keeping with professional standards, with the worth and dignity of each child, and with the affluence of this, the richest and most powerful nation on earth.

16

The Improvement of the Preparation Program: Some Comments on Selection

Emerging concepts of the role of the administrator were indicated as early as 1948 by the several work conferences of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration. These identified the administrator as a democratic leader releasing the creative energies of both the staff and the community with regard to the public schools.

> 1. An administrator must exercise leadership in group determination of wants and needs.
> 2. An administrator must exercise leadership in group evolution of a plan of action.
> 3. An administrator must exercise leadership in the implementation of group planning.
> 4. An administrator must join with others in appraising the quality of his leadership.
>
> It would be clear that the emphasis in the first three is upon the word "group"; and in the fourth it is upon the word "others."[1]

If we examine these concepts carefully, we are confronted with an important fact. There is more here than methodology or training; the emphasis is on dynamics of personality. But an administrator could seem to fulfill all of these goals and yet not be involved *personally* in the procedure in a meaningful way.

However, as early as 1935 Jesse Newlon in his book *Educational Administration as Social Policy*[2] indicated that the ideologies and background of many administrators might preclude their conceiving of the school as a social agency in its broadest sense, for most of the superintendents in the United States were of middle-class, Caucasian, Protestant background. Also, not too long ago the school was succinctly compared to "a large business enterprise," with the board of education described as a board of directors and the superintendent likened to the president of a corporation.[3]

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[1] National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *Educational Leaders: Their Function and Preparation*, Second Work Conference, Madison, Wisconsin, 1948, p. 12.

[2] New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935.

Lewin, Lippitt, and others have indicated that attitudes are most important to performance.[4] It is probably true that many lay and professional committees have felt subliminal cues which instead of promoting discussion and evaluation stifled it, regardless of the words used. In other words, the authoritarian personality is not necessarily an uncomplicated one. It has certainly been the experience of many in the field that authoritarian leadership is often couched in phraseology that would suggest a democratic process to the casual observer while actually having the opposite effect. Much so-called authoritarianism is characterized by a superficial warmth that seemingly releases the creative energy of others. As we have suggested, democratic leadership is more than a method; it is integrated into the personality itself.[5]

This is by way of introduction to the issue to be discussed in the present chapter. If personality is important in the training of the administrator, what do we need to know about students in order to be able to set up qualifications so that they may have future success? In other words, who shall be selected?

Qualifications for Educational Leadership: Obvious Areas

Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer list a number of competencies necessary to educational leadership.[6] These they divide into physical, mental, social, character. They go into personal and educational background. They discuss working with people, and skills needed in the profession. Harl Douglass lists 14 competencies, an administrator should have, of which we quote a few:

1. He must possess personal qualities which make for leadership, for acceptance by teachers, pupils, and others, and for influence with them.
2. He should have competence in at least one subject-matter area of learning and be somewhat of a specialist in it.
3. He should have had several years' successful experience as a high school teacher.
4. He should possess physical health and an abundance of energy.

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[3] Ellwood Patterson Cubberley, *Public School Administration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1922).

[4] Kurt Lewin, "Dynamics of Group Action," *Educational Leadership*, 1 (January 1944) 195–200; Ronald Lippitt, "Administrator Perception and Administrative Approval: A Communication Problem," *Sociatry*, 1 (June 1947), 209–219.

[5] Gordon W. Allport, *The Nature of Prejudice* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1954); Robert R. Blake and Glenn V. Ramsey, *Perception: An Approach to Personality* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951).

[6] Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, *Introduction to Educational Administration* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962), pp. 299–306.

> 5. He should have a sound, healthy personality and an understanding and practice of good mental hygiene. . . .
> 14. He should be an individual with an open mind, capable of accepting new proposals, willing to experiment and try new methods, and willing to evaluate and accept good ideas which may come from teachers, pupils, or people of the community.[7]

The problem of these two approaches can be expressed very simply. Some of the greatest leaders in education as well as in other disciplines neither fit the all-inclusive approach as expressed by the previously mentioned list nor possessed all the latter virtues. And certainly great leaders have had many faults and weaknesses as well as strengths. They possessed doubts as well as convictions, conflicts as well as certainties. Contemplating the ambiguities that arise when one discusses leadership at its highest level, we have the feeling that certain seemingly reasonable and rational answers are often operationally invalid. As a result, when we reach out for the qualifications needed, we often confine ourselves to that which we know and disregard the more ambiguous elements. But, of course, obvious facts must not be neglected. These follow.

College Background. Whether he is a principal or a superintendent, the administrator should be a college graduate. For the most part faculty members are college graduates and hence form an intelligent group. Therefore, an educational leader, if he is to keep pace with them, must at least have a similar background. Of course, a learned or intelligent person can be either democratic or authoritarian, can invest in people or exploit them, can enhance them or destroy them. Still, learning and intelligence are criteria that one can establish as necessary if the individual is to serve the intelligent college graduates who are his colleagues.

Knowledge of Subject Matter and Behavior. A similar qualification involves knowledge. Educators are intimately concerned with the transfer of learning as well as the modification of behavior. An educational leader, therefore, ought to have considerable knowledge about some area or areas of subject matter and some knowledge of behavior – the latter in order to assist his faculty with behavioral change; the former in order to assure competency in terms of the curriculum. This does not mean that the administrator has to be competent in all curricular areas, but it does mean that his sophistication in certain areas should be commensurate with the sophistication and skills of the faculty he serves. Again one needs to be aware that knowledge and skill belong as much to the authoritarian personality as to the democratic personality, can be directed toward the exploitation of others or toward their enhancement.

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[7] Harl R. Douglass, *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools* (Boston: Ginn & Company, 1963), pp. 23–24. Reprinted through the courtesy of Blaisdell Publishing Company, a division of Ginn and Company.

Communications Skills. Another obvious qualification concerns the verbal writing skills that are necessary for the more superficial aspects of communication (see p. 128). (The term "superficial is used here because we are not thinking of subtle communication, often subliminal, that suggest values, but of the ability to speak and to write succinctly.) These are easily ascertained. They are important because generally the groups with which the administrator is involved admire these skills and respond to them. In addition, they are highly useful in his daily performance with his faculty, the public, and the students. However, clarity of expression, whether verbal or written, is nondirectional in terms of the value structure. One can write clearly and be destructive of human dignity. One can write clearly and enhance human dignity. One can do the same verbally.

The degree of success required in these skills is still doubtful. How well an administrator should be able to speak or to write depends in large measure upon the kind of assignment or role he has or wishes to have. It seems clear enough that the elementary principal might need less writing and more verbal ability, while the professor of educational administration might need to develop more writing than verbal skill. But both are necessary for both roles.

A Subtle Area: The Importance of "Value Commitments"

Value commitments are part of the personality structure. In the first two sections of this book we examined in considerable detail some of the premises and some of the insights related to leadership and the administrator. We attempted to isolate the values that we believe impart a sense of direction to the administrator and that should govern leadership behavior. It would serve little or no purpose to repeat them here, but we ought to say that a screening program needs to take into account in some way a method of measuring these directional factors and a way of ascertaining commitment to these values. Otherwise the program of training can be self-defeating, for to impart skill in leadership to an individual whose commitments are counter to the goals of democracy may be to place a powerful tool in the hands of a sophisticated person whose premises are destructive.

Also, where insights, however limited, are available, their presence can assist the development of skills in the direction of democratic postulates. Where they do not exist, a much more difficult situation may obtain and the training program must effect much deeper personality change. In other words, no matter how naïvely an individual is "person centered" it is easier to begin here than with an individual who is "thing centered." In the former case the program needs to deepen and sharpen a commitment already there; in the latter it has first to establish such a commitment in the personality structure of the individual. It is even a moot question whether the latter can be done with an adult unless some beginnings are already present.

This suggests that rather than discussing in much detail the attributes and traits that administrators must have – traits which perhaps he can "role-play," e.g., an "open mind" – one come to grips with an analysis of the personality and value structure of the individual in order to probe his ability to perceive and be committed to the premises and insights described earlier.

Screening

The Present Screening Process Regarding Values. If the idea is accepted that proper screening can check value commitments, a great deal of difficulty can be prevented through a careful planning at the outset. In the past some obvious competencies have been checked. A screening program now acceptable usually includes the following:

1. Grade point average: B or better; 3 point average or better.
2. Interview by two professors: one or both may be in the discipline of school administration.
3. Achievement test: Graduate Record or Student College Achievement.
4. Personality inventory: MMPI, Rorschach, Miller's analogies, etc.
5. Two to five years' "successful" teaching experience.
6. Recommendation by several members of the district, either peers or superiors.

In general the tests, interviews, and personality examination are pretty much the same in institutions that have undertaken a screening program. Any changes would be changes in detail rather than approach or philosophy. But since more subtle issues are also at stake, a number of institutions have included personal interviews and personality tests such as the MMPI, the Rorschach, etc. Sensitive as these instruments or an interview may be, they require considerable skill in administration and interpretation. Moreover, they sometimes reveal difficulties which, rather than eliminating the candidate, appear quite "normal" under the circumstances. For example, a testing officer reports the following:

> The MMPI profile of an experienced teacher showed considerable anxiety. He was called for a personal interview. The interview revealed that his wife, a social worker, had just been committed to a mental institution. He was now the only adult in the home and the sole support of three children. At that time he had no one in the house to take care of things except a teen-age daughter. In addition he seemed very devoted to his wife. Also it was his feeling that his wife's breakdown was caused by overwork and the frustrating task of working with the old age program, which, as she had indicated to him, had very little positive prognosis for social work.

This man's anxieties were healthy and he was far from being a poor risk; his reaction was normal under the circumstances, since a reality principle was involved. Maslow's description of a self-actualizing personality indicates that even "mature" people show "reality" oriented anxieties.[8] But what about the person who, under the above circumstances, has a profile indicating no difficulties, who has developed no anxieties despite what is happening to his wife and to his family? Such a person ordinarily is never seen by the testing officer, who approves his profile as acceptable. Yet he may have a shallow conscience without much investment in another person's welfare and probably should be rejected as a future educational leader.

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[8] Abraham H. Maslow, *Toward a Psychology of Being* (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1962).

Obviously personality factors arising from the environment are difficult to measure scientifically. It may well be that at present, as far as screening is concerned, investigation is still superficial. Deeper probing may reveal conflicts and anxieties, but their relationship to reality is not necessarily understood.

The individual of shallow personality may be shown by an evaluative instrument to have a weak conscience and not much investment in other people. But he is often well organized and may do exceptionally well academically. His "surface" personality is pleasing and his appearance pleasant and highly acceptable. Thus he may convince all except the very sophisticated interviewer or testing officer that he is qualified for the role of educational leadership.

> One attractive young lady presented herself so well that she convinced her instructor, who was also the testing officer, to raise her grade from a B to an A. When he saw her profile on the MMPI, he was struck by her weak conscience and called her in for further discussion. After the first interview she brought in her guardian who threatened the professor and the college with a lawsuit if she were not granted permission to move toward a credential.
>
> When she was denied the credential, she found another professor, who recommended her for teaching at the college level — a professional task that required no credential.

Other Difficulties in the Screening Process. Two other factors should be kept in mind if the screening program is to be successful in measuring "value" commitments: premises and insights. The individual who is being screened is entitled to careful consideration, which takes a substantial amount of *time.* Much screening in the past was done hurriedly. Interviews may have lasted no more than a half-hour. Tests were taken and cutting off points established, but not very often explained to the candidate unless he was "disqualified." While the candidate himself may have been involved over a period of time by virtue of his apprenticeship as a teacher and his appearances for testing interviews, those evaluating him had no time to interact with him in an insightful and empathic fashion.

Another matter that has never been brought into focus is the need for having a *number* of persons check out each other's perceptions. Committees have gone over the materials and have either accepted or rejected candidates on the basis of the criteria mentioned above, but for the most part the candidates are unknown to the majority of the people who do the evaluating. To have the candidate interact with two or more members of the committee would make the evaluation more realistic. It is true that such a procedure makes the decision much more complex and ambiguous since several people will perceive an individual in several different ways. But by the same token the candidate also receives a more considered approach – to which both he and the profession are entitled.

Still another weakness of the present screening program needs to be mentioned. In many institutions the assigned load of administrative candidates may be in excess of 150 advisees per instructor. Normally classes for the training of administrators are seen as lecture-discussion classes and have a limit of 40 and a breaking point of 50.[9] The only exceptions are field service and seminars, which have maximum loads of 24 and 25. These class sizes seem excessive, especially in light of the figures for graduate study examined in Chapter 19.

Aside from the social implications which could be argued and which often fall in the realm of ambiguity, the importance of careful screening could be reduced to the dramatic and the absurd. For example, we could define the leadership of the principal of an elementary school in terms of his salary and the salaries of the people he supervises (see Table I).

Table I

COMPARISON OF AVERAGE ADMINISTRATOR–TEACHER SALARIES IN CALIFORNIA

Area	Average Salary of Elementary and Secondary Principals		Average Salary of Elementary and Secondary Teachers	
	Elementary	*Secondary*	*Elementary*	*Secondary*
Throughout California	$ 8,500	$10,000	$6,645	$7,648
In the Unified District	10,000	12,000	7,410	7,972

Source: California Teachers Association, "Building Administrative Office Personnel Salary Schedules 1963–64," *Research Bulletin No. 166,* November 1963; Teachers Salaries Paid, 1963–64," *Research Bulletin No. 169,* January 1964.

Assuming a $10,000-a-year average salary, a principal starting at 35 years of age and working for 30 years until retirement would have earned $300,000. For 15 teachers at an average salary of $6,000 for 30 years of teaching, the figure is $2,700,000. The total amount in salaries for certificated personnel is $3,000,000 in a period of 30 years. Now his supervisory role assumes more importance in our culture, unfortunately perhaps.

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[9] California State College Faculty Staffing Formula, revised 1960.

Another way of stating the cost is to use the state average daily attendance figure for 500 pupils. At present (according to California Teachers Association Research Bulletin No. 166) this is $350 per pupil. Multiplying $350 by 500 by 30 we get $5,250,000 – an awesome sum in any business even when we eliminate the human element.

Any industrial installation training junior executives to be responsible for an operation involving that much money would take more time and set up much smaller groups for its training program. In fact, one industrial complex uses basic groups of eight or nine for purposes of problem solving. Schutz in his book *FIRO* analyzes all the possible perceptions operative in group interaction.[10] The complexities suggest more than superficial selection, often based on compatibility or conformity. The group needs to be small if interaction is to be complicated enough to influence behavior and if the screening is to be founded on meaningful insights.

Some Suggested Methods for Screening for Values. A seminar course with no more than 15 or 20 students might be useful for screening. No prerequisites would be involved. At least two instructors would teach the course, and it would deal with the problems of school administration as it applies to teachers as well as to administrators,[11] an approach which might create greater understanding between teacher and administrator. The isolating and screening of talent having potential for future leadership roles could be done by discussion between the instructors, examination of verbal and written skills in the course, visitation to the classroom to observe the student as an instructor, evaluations made by both the individual's superior and his peers, etc. During the four months used in such an approach many methods of coming to understand the candidate, his values and perceptions, and his potentials would be forthcoming in a group small enough to assist with suggestions, and with sufficient time allocated to the instructors.

A course of this type calls for team teaching. All candidates might be encouraged to take a beginning course in problems and issues in administration, which would be useful to teachers as well as to administrators. The course might even be required, either as part of the undergraduate experience for the teaching credential or as part of a program toward an M.A. in education, in which case it would also assist in selecting candidates with leadership potential who did not perceive themselves in this light – a situation perhaps more common than we know. It is entirely possible that people who are "overly ambitious" may have more superficial motives for becoming educational leaders, e.g., the quest for status or added income, in contrast to those who see teaching as a "service" and in their role as educational leaders might continue to function in a similar way.

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[10] William C. Schutz, *FIRO* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1958).

[11] Jefferson N. Eastmond, *The Teacher and School Administration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1959).

The Internship Program (Field Service) as a Screening Device. Still another approach to screening might involve the internship program, about which much has been written and in which many outstanding universities and colleges have participated.[12] The recommendation given by Davies for the university "coordinator" of the intern program is as follows:

> A full-time load for the university coordinator will be defined as above, plus the direct supervision of 15 to 20 interns. More than 20 interns calls for the appointment of an additional coordinator or coordinators to maintain a ratio of no more than 1:20.

Harvard's report on its intern program gives the following as its major aim:

> The major aim of the program is to develop in the candidate the qualities needed for effective action as a superintendent. Briefly, these qualities include (1) a belief in the central importance of people, the need for intelligent allocation of resources and the wise use of executive power for educational ends; (2) an analytic frame of mind regarding people, facts, and the complexities of the school and community environment; and (3) the ability to act and make decisions in planning, organizing, maintaining, and evaluating school operations.
>
> During the *third* and final stage, the candidate assumes personal responsibility in his employment as a school administrator. He must now, as an individual, make and implement vital decisions based on continued analysis and reflection. While fulfilling his administrative responsibilities, the candidate will carry out, under the guidance of a faculty member, a project which will yield useful and reliable recorded knowledge about the administration of schools.[13]

Some individuals may perceive Harvard's program as a clinical approach to the internship. We would like to suggest that the internship in many ways needs to be defined as a clinical method. The year or two the medical intern spends in the hospital is replete with clinical experiences – in which he must perform as a clinician: diagnosing and prescribing. In a like manner it would seem necessary for the future administrator be given opportunities for clinical practice. It might be of value to compare the Harvard program with the internship program now carried out cooperatively with four New York universities (Buffalo, Rochester, Cornell, and Syracuse), which, although begun recently, shows many promising aspects in this regard.

The question rises whether the university coordinator can do all the tasks necessary for 20 interns and still develop the understandings he needs in order to recommend to the intern and to the profession the kinds of services for which each intern is best qualified. Harvard assigns only three interns to the university coordinator. This, in light of the amount of money expended in the leadership function mentioned above, as well as the complexity of the task, appears to be a much more realistic load. It is hard to imagine that the medical profession would assign 20 interns to each resident physician in the hospital and still maintain that the supervision was adequate and effective. True, the administrator, to quote Davies, has the responsibility of "one intern at a time . . . to give direct supervision to the work of the intern." However, unless he is given careful supervision, he may be developing not insights and worthwhile premises but only a smooth operational pattern.

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[12] Daniel R. Davies, *The Internship in Educational Administration* (Washington: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1962).

[13] "The Administrative Career Program 1963–64," Harvard University Graduate School of Education.

An internship program, of course, depends on the willingness of the college and the district to invest money as well as time in the training of future administrators – in view of some of the data we have presented, surely a wise investment. Some districts have already set up programs in which half of the salary of a teacher is paid toward his working as an intern.

> The cost to the school system or other field agency is not a serious problem. As a matter of fact, it can be argued that each field agency that receives an intern gains financially thereby. If the intern serves without pay, the point is easily made. If the intern serves with pay at a rate less than he could normally expect for his training and experience, the point is still made. If he is paid at the regular rate, the school system either breaks even or gains.
>
> Consider what the school system or field agency gets. The intern is a highly selected, highly motivated person. He is so eager to make good that he will go far beyond the normal call of duty.[14]

Again, if consultative services are available to the student and if the instructor has only a few students, the screening program can proceed with a great deal of insight. The Kellogg Foundation contributed a considerable sum of money for this kind of internship program.

> The first, "Studies in School Administration," is a report on CPEA by Hollis A. Moore, Jr. In it, Moore traces the history of CPEA as a major effort to remake a profession through widespread participation and with the aid of more than six and one-half million dollars of W. K. Kellogg Foundation funds. . . .[15]

But unless the early part of the internship, possibly a first semester or first year, is seen as a screening procedure, such a program may have serious defects, for success of the program is still dependent upon careful screening and selection.

Is it possible that one of the essential difficulties of the internship program lies in the fact that a candidate for the program has been screened by traditional methods? Has an operational program been established to judge the values and perceptions the candidate holds, the decisions he makes, and the procedures he associates with good leadership? Screening of the latter type involves much interaction between the candidate, the professor, and the administrator in the field. Many attitudes and perceptions will be seen at first subjectively and will need to be clarified throughout the process. Nevertheless, only as screening and selection are treated at this depth level can the quality of the people who wish to become educational leaders be upgraded.

[14] Davies, *op. cit.*, pp. 63–64.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 80.

17

The Improvement of the Preparation Program: Some Aspects of Training

The task of training the administrator becomes increasingly important, not only to the individual, but to the society. It is not, therefore, germane to talk about time, effort, and cost until one has fully explored practical ways of establishing the requisite premises and insights — the values.

The following is a possible developmental program:

A DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAM FOR ADMINISTRATORS

For the Supervisor-Principal

SOME GENERAL OVERALL GOALS	SOME POSSIBLE SPECIFIC COURSE WORK
1. The nature and premises of the democratic society.	1. The historical evolution of American education; some present issues re finance, state and federal control, etc.
2. Self-awareness — the need for understanding one's role, motivations, and perceptions.	2. The essential tasks of the administrator as related to insight.
3. The nature and premises of the individual groups; interaction and decision making in a democratic society.	3. The consideration of tasks as related to democratic premises.
4. The role of the behavioral and social sciences and humanities for the above.	4. Course work and experiences in the behavioral and social sciences and humanities.
5. Practical application.	5. The intern program (field service).
6. Research.	6. The M.A. thesis as well as minor research projects throughout course work.

profession would assign 20 interns to each resident physician in the hospital and still maintain that the supervision was adequate and effective. True, the administrator, to quote Davies, has the responsibility of "one intern at a time . . . to give direct supervision to the work of the intern." However, unless he is given careful supervision, he may be developing not insights and worthwhile premises but only a smooth operational pattern.

An internship program, of course, depends on the willingness of the college and the district to invest money as well as time in the training of future administrators — in view of some of the data we have presented, surely a wise investment. Some districts have already set up programs in which half of the salary of a teacher is paid toward his working as an intern.

> The cost to the school system or other field agency is not a serious problem. As a matter of fact, it can be argued that each field agency that receives an intern gains financially thereby. If the intern serves without pay, the point is easily made. If the intern serves with pay at a rate less than he could normally expect for his training and experience, the point is still made. If he is paid at the regular rate, the school system either breaks even or gains.
>
> Consider what the school system or field agency gets. The intern is a highly selected, highly motivated person. He is so eager to make good that he will go far beyond the normal call of duty.[14]

Again, if consultative services are available to the student and if the instructor has only a few students, the screening program can proceed with a great deal of insight. The Kellogg Foundation contributed a considerable sum of money for this kind of internship program.

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Is it possible that one of the essential difficulties of the internship program lies in the fact that a candidate for the program has been screened by traditional methods? Has an operational program been established to judge the values and perceptions the candidate holds, the decisions he makes, and the procedures he associates with good leadership? Screening of the latter type involves much interaction between the candidate, the professor, and the administrator in the field. Many attitudes and perceptions will be seen at first subjectively and will need to be clarified throughout the process. Nevertheless, only as screening and selection are treated at this depth level can the quality of the people who wish to become educational leaders be upgraded.

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[14] Davies, *op. cit.*, pp. 63–64.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 80.

For Other Roles in Administration
(in addition to the above)

1. The nature and premises involved in law in a democracy.	1. School law: its functions, purposes, evolution, specifics, and limitations.
2. The nature and premises involved in public finance, taxation, etc.	2. School finance: its functions, purposes, evolution, specifics, and limits; the school budget as a social document.
3. The nature and premises involved in public institutions and facilities.	3. School housing: its relationship to community, learning, etc.; the school plant as an investment in children and their developmental needs.
4. The study of the behavioral sciences, humanities, and social sciences.	4. Course work in the behavioral sciences.
5. Practical applications.	5. The concentrated intern program.
6. Research.	6. The Ed.D. or Ph.D. program.

While the above will not guarantee that the student will become an outstanding administrator committed both to the basic premises of democracy and to the goals of education, this broad experience, involving as it does theory, research, and practice in administration, might bring him closer to this ideal.

A Brief Discussion of Related Fields

The Social Sciences. The first sections of this text have illustrated the importance of the behavioral sciences in providing tools for facilitating the role of the public school administrator. Here we suggest that formal course work in the social sciences also has a direct bearing upon his development of skills in fields such as personnel administration, administration of pupil personnel, and guidance, to name a few. Therefore, he might take courses in sociology, i.e., the study of minorities, the study of civilizations; economics, i.e., the study of various economic theories; etc. These should be organized around specialized functions of the public school administrator.

Business Administration. The future administrator, particularly if he is interested in assuming responsibility for the business, financial, and legal aspects of the school districts, would receive much benefit from additional study of business administration. Courses in methods and practices in business administration in the areas of public and private finance, corporate law, and methods of purchasing by industrial and public agencies could be of decided help in the training of an administrator.

Public Administration and Political Science. Study of the development of federal, local, and state governments can be of importance to the school administrator. Comparative studies of public institutions might also be valuable, particularly as they illustrate the evolution of both the democratic and the authoritarian state. Obviously, the person training for administration should be very conscious of the differences, both subtle and apparent, between these two forms of government.

The Enrichment Curriculum. The administrator needs to be educated in the humanities, the sciences, and the arts because he assumes a leadership role with a group of people, teachers, who are themselves committed to these areas of learning. However subject-centered these teachers may be and regardless of whether they accept or reject the needs of students, they often admire and respect the "well-educated" individual.

But even more important is the growing insight and wisdom that can be obtained if the administrator in training can utilize these disciplines and integrate them into his own thinking and into his own personality. Perhaps in this kind of commitment to learning he himself moves in the direction of one of the three basic goals mentioned in Chapter 13 under the heading "The Third Goal: The Development of a Love of Learning."

The Leadership Role and the Related Fields

The instructor who is in charge of the training of administrators should also be in charge of counseling those students to take course work in the related fields. Social sciences and business administration, sciences and humanities are useful to the public school administrator, not only as disciplines, but as aids to a greater understanding of his function as a leader in education. He will find some courses in these fields of more benefit than others. It is this kind of practical application that the professor of educational administration must assess in order to counsel the student regarding the proper sequence for his purpose.

Such counseling may run the gamut from very simple to very complex. For example, a sensitive and talented candidate with fine verbal skills but inadequate training in written expression might well elect course work in English composition. A more sophisticated student might be advised to study comparative social anthropology in order to gain a wider knowledge of the similarities and dissimilarities among the various cultures of the world. For too long now public school administration, like teaching, has been considered a skill that comes "naturally." The idea that anyone, if he has certain personality characteristics, can "lead" is responsible for the frequent appointment or election of people to positions of power who do not know how or who do not deserve to exercise leadership. Individuals who seemingly have all the surface qualities associated with a stereotyped, "cookbook" idea of leadership may turn out later to be really quite naïve and quite shallow and even quite destructive.

Therefore, educational administration should be seen as a discipline, and the training of administrators should be guided by competent counselors. Only in this way can the related fields become meaningful and enriching to the future educational leader. Only in this way can the piling up of unnecessary courses or courses that may lead to undue emphasis on one or another of the disciplines be avoided. It is our firm belief that administration involves the integration of many disciplines and ability to use them well, rather than overspecialization on the one hand or a random selection of courses on the other.

Formal Course Work for Administration

A first course should probably deal with some basic issues related to the administration of the public schools. This course would include not just an analysis of some of the procedures at present regarded as successful but also the historical evolution of such procedures and the use of some research hypotheses which might be checked out tentatively to predict future development based on historical precedent. A number of issues often relegated to obscurity because of their difficulty of solution and the ambiguities involved need to be brought to the conscious level and considered part of such a course. We list a few of these:

1. Tax support for the private school vs. tax support for the public school.
2. Education for all youth vs. education for the elite (gifted).
3. The status of education and educational administration.
4. Certification and its meaning in terms of professionalism.
5. The role of lay boards: their duties and their limitations.
6. The administrative function: power vs. service.
7. Optimal size of unified districts: What might be too small or too large?
8. Federal support for whom and why?

It is not our purpose to describe the specifics of the course but only to indicate that controversial issues need to be brought into the classroom and considered in depth. We feel that avoidance of these issues would be detrimental to training.

Such a course, involving as it does the historical, political, and social issues implicit in the development of the administrative role, also divides itself naturally according to the various administrative units, federal, state, county, and local, established throughout the American democracy. So much material might not be possible to cover with a large group or in one semester. The introductory course could then be seen as a seminar course taking an entire year.

The idea of a beginning seminar course is of considerable importance. In 1950–51 a survey conducted by the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration showed that 21 universities out of the 34 replying listed enrollments of 100 or more students in administration for the first summer session. One institution enrolled over 450 students during the first two summer sessions of 1949. Large lecture classes make interaction on controversial issues impractical if not impossible, while subdividing them into small committee groups means dissipating the services of the instructor. The problem here is that the end product, a formal report to the entire class, is not the end product truly desired. Although the report may be excellent, it is only through interaction and participation that behavior can be studied and modified. Without the instructor, then, acting as a catalyst at the very least, such interaction as does take place will fall far short of this desired goal. We have heard and followed up a number of reports and discussions concerning "democratic" administration which operationally ended in authoritarian interaction at the school level.

Industrial complexes may have large groups listening to outstanding lectures, but their problem-solving groups do not exceed eight or ten (see Chapter 16). It is our contention that at the very outset in dealing with some of the basic issues attendant on the administrative act the groups should be oriented in the direction of problem solving. Therefore, small seminar groups are in order. There are several advantages: (1) The instructor can interact more empathically with the students. (2) The instructor can help modify behavior and perception more readily. (3) The interaction becomes more meaningful on the part of the students. (4) The instructor can evaluate results with more insight regarding each student. (5) The students can evaluate their own understandings more adequately. (6) They can evaluate each other better. (7) They are able to make decisions regarding their own future in administration with more understanding.

Of course, much research is needed on the issues, the kind of assignment, and the kind of interaction required for optimal use of such an approach. However, as indicated earlier, a great deal has been done in the fields of sociology and social psychology to suggest that insights as well as instruments are available for evaluating interaction which would have meaning for administration. Indeed, some of them could be modified for use in a beginning course to assist the professor of educational administration in his evaluation of students' behavior. (See Chapter 19 for an instrument that could be used this way.)

The first course, then, could deal with basic issues. Another aspect of the training program should include the study of the theories and premises underlying democratic leadership in America — a task to which this text addresses itself. Schutz in his book *FIRO* discusses various perceptual factors in personality as related to leadership.

> To summarize, difficulties with initiating interaction range from being uncomfortable when not associating with people ("can't stand to be alone" — the *oversocial*) to not feeling comfortable initiating interaction ("can't stand being with people" — the *undersocial*). Difficulties with controlling others range from not feeling comfortable controlling the behavior of anyone ("can't tell anyone what to do" — the *abdicrat*) to not feeling comfortable when unable to control everyone ("always have to be in charge" — the *autocrat*). Difficulties with originating close, personal relations range from being uncomfortable when unable to establish a sufficiently close, personal relation ("can't get close enough" — the *overpersonal*) to being uncomfortable when getting too close and personal with someone ("don't like to get emotionally involved with people" — *underpersonal*).[1]

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[1] William C. Schutz, *FIRO* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1958), p. 32.

Naturally, the above statements would have to be carefully explored. Perhaps, the first series of problem-solving situations would consider the definition of the terms in the most perceptive and insightful ways possible.

Clearly, much of the theory of leadership is complex. This often makes it difficult to put into practice. Granted that many variables enter into the question of leadership, there are certain fundamental premises and insights which need to be evaluated, discussed, and translated into task areas. It is possible to utilize these premises and insights, to bring to bear present research from their standpoint, and to compare the kinds of practice found in the principal's role as performed in the district. Students in training for administration might be asked to take two important tasks of the principal as he functions daily in his school, divide them into three levels of performance, and, examining these in turn, see whether the research designs check basic premises and insights and whether actual practice bears out the research results.

A Task-Oriented Course in Administration

In the tasks under the general area "The Administrator and Personnel" (see Figure 16) there are listed specific areas: "Teacher Selection," "Teacher Evaluation," "In-Service Training," and "Supervision." A student selects one of these topics and investigates it through the three levels: first, with regard to the democratic premises; second, what the research says about it; and third, whether he can discover actual practice which embraces both the premises and the research – i.e., the prescription, level three.

With such an approach research designs may emerge which will have a sense of direction.

Secondary research of this type suggests ways of checking out hypotheses concerning the leadership process. Moreover, as the student engages in this research, he becomes more sophisticated in basic research and in the subtleties involved in leadership behavior and so establishes greater understanding also of his own future function as a principal or supervisor.

Another essential in the role of the principal and the supervisor is leadership in supervision and curriculum development. Every textbook on administration devotes some space to the school principal or supervisor as "a leader in curriculum planning." Shane and Yauch, in their chapter on leadership in planning a creatively designed curriculum include an extensive set of references – some 46 different publications.[2] Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer discuss curriculum development, curriculum evaluation, and ways of effecting changes in curriculum in a chapter on the administrative tasks.[3] Harl Douglass cites methods of

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[2] Harold G. Shane and Wilbur A. Yauch, *Creative School Administration* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1954), pp. 267–288.

[3] Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, *Introduction to Educational Administration* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962), pp. 96–101.

Figure 16

ASSIGNMENTS AT THREE LEVELS FOR A TASK-ORIENTED COURSE IN ADMINISTRATION

The Task	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
I. *The Administrator and Personnel* A. Teacher Selection B. Teacher Evaluation C. In-Service Training 1. Individual — the case approach 2. Group a. Workshops b. Meetings D. Supervision	Premises and Insights (Awareness of Purpose and Goals)	Diagnostic Wisdom (Role of Research)	Prescriptive Inference (Status and Performance)
II. *The Administrator and Guidance* A. Pupil Personnel 1. Grouping 2. Remedial and Acceleration Processes 3. Behavior Problems 4. Student Control 5. Extracurricular B. Etc.	Three Levels Built One Upon the Other: Level 3: Prescriptive Inferences — Status Level 2: Diagnostic Wisdom — Research Level 1: Basic Democratic Premises and Goals — Awareness of Purpose A SCHEMATIC DESIGN FOR THE ABOVE		

curriculum development throughout his entire text, covering terminology, limitations, principles, types, improvement, current trends of organization, unified studies, selection of textbooks, resource units, etc.[4]

It is safe to say that there is not a textbook on administration that does not include considerable reference to the role of the administrator in curriculum planning. A more or less typical outline of a course in curriculum planning follows:

Leadership in the Curriculum

Description of course: Study of principles and techniques of supervision and curriculum development appropriate to a modern program of education. Attention given to the service role of the leader in the program of instructional improvement. Cultural pressures acting both formally and informally to shape the curriculum are also considered. Legal requirements for course work in supervision and curriculum development. Prerequisite: Teaching experience.

Evaluation of Instruction, Curriculum, and Learning
Doing and Using Research in Supervision
Specific Supervisory Techniques: Meetings, Conferences, Bulletins, Materials, Etc.
Curriculum Development Programs and Their Organization
The Curriculum and Effective Instruction in Language Arts (all grade levels and including reading, literature, composition, spelling, handwriting, and foreign languages)
The Curriculum and Effective Instruction in Mathematics (again all grade levels)
The Curriculum and Effective Instruction in Social Studies
The Curriculum and Effective Instruction in the Sciences
Curriculums and Instruction in the Fine and Practical Arts
Health and Physical Education Instructional Programs
Keeping Abreast as a Supervisor

Evaluation of insights developed in methods of curriculum and supervision might be ascertained in the following fashion:

An Examination in Curriculum Development and Supervision

Each of these questions might call for rather extended discussion. However, please confine your answers, if possible, to the spaces indicated. This would suggest getting right to the point.

1. What are the arguments for and against classroom visitation as a supervisory technique?
2. One measure of teacher effectiveness is generally considered to be pupil gain or achievement. How valid do you believe this factor is of a teacher's effectiveness?
3. The authors of our text advocate "the method of practical intelligence" approach to supervision. What does this approach or method consist of?

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[4] Harl R. Douglass, *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools* (Boston: Ginn & Company, 1963).

4. The authors of the text also indicate that "supervision by objectives" will become the pattern of the future. What do they mean by supervision by objectives?
5. Briefly indicate the role of evaluation in curriculum development. Recall that evaluation has several facets as you answer this.[5]

The question that arises is whether curriculum has been seen as a creative and ever evolving task as insights and research have developed more diagnostic wisdom or whether, as in the past, the standard recipes have been given: the administrator "must involve the staff" and "must give the teachers a voice in curriculum planning." Actually, contemplation of the complexities of any curriculum readily persuades the administrator that he cannot possibly "know it all." For example, many elementary male principals have never taught at primary levels. Few secondary school principals would be conversant with all the subjects taught in a comprehensive high school. No matter how erudite the individual, one or two academic majors, one or two academic minors at the secondary level, and possibly some general synthesis of the elementary school curriculum are all that would be available to the secondary or elementary principal. Therefore, it is not only undemocratic but sheer folly for the administrator not to use the talents of empathic teachers whose skills complement his own and who have studied in areas which differ from and obviously can enhance his own.

So the question of democratic interaction is not germane here. What is important is that such interaction needs to take place simply because the administrator must be more than a person supplying information and knowledge. He must also be a person receiving information and knowledge from those members of the profession who are themselves more creative and informed in curriculum areas with which he is relatively unfamiliar. With this in mind, one begins to see that the task of the administrator as it bears on leadership in curriculum study has similar overtones to those personnel and guidance task areas.

THE INTERN PROGRAM

We come now to a culminating course which could be considered a combination practicum in field work and a seminar course. The emphasis here needs to be placed, it seem to us on the administrator's involvement with people in the performance of his daily work.

Interaction with People

Although activities which form the foundation of educational leadership could cover all aspects of administrative tasks — the administration of teaching personnel, the administration of pupil personnel, curriculum development, supervision of instruction, school finance, business administration, school housing, office management, public relations, etc. – each of these can be geared to enhance primary interaction with people, as illustrated by the following:

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[5] The writer is indebted to Walter T. Petty, Ph.D., Professor of Education at Sacramento State College, for the above material on Curriculum Development and Supervision.

Area 1. The Administration of Teaching Personnel
  a. Chairman of a committee to plan an induction program for new teachers.
  b. Work with first-year teachers to determine the kinds of assistance they would perceive as of greatest value for purposes of orientation.
  c. Work with administrators and supervisors to help establish criteria for teacher selection.
  d. Assist in developing means of evaluating assignments.
  e. Assist a group in evaluating teacher promotion.

Area 2. The Administration of Pupil Personnel
  a. Work with a group of students to become better adjusted to the school.
  b. Work with students to determine sources of pupil satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
  c. Assume the responsibility for a club or comparable organization.
  d. Work with students who are capable in terms of service to others.
  e. Help to create through interaction student governments which have greater meaning for the school and the students.

Area 3. Curriculum Development and Supervision of Instruction
  a. Assume leadership in the development of a new program of instruction.
  b. Assist in the planning and conduct of a teacher workshop.
  c. Assist in the planning of a program of in-service education.
  d. Assist in developing better courses of study.
  e. Work with other teachers on the improvement of teaching any particular subject.
  f. Assist other teachers to interpret standardized tests and relate these to means for improving instruction.
  g. Assist individual teachers to discover areas in which their effectiveness can be improved, and help in the improvement.
  h. Plan group projects for the improvement of instruction.

Area 4. School Finance and Business Administration
  a. Assist a committee in the preparation of the district budget.
  b. Work with a salary committee to determine the succeeding year's salary schedule.
  c. Manage the cafeteria including the staff for one semester.
  d. Work with other teachers, with administrators, and with the board in the development of a salary schedule for your district.

Area 5. School Housing
  a. Work with custodian in terms of assignment, tasks, morale, etc.
  b. Work with teachers on facilities needed to enhance the curriculum. facilities and new units.
  c. Work with teachers to increase communication regarding expanding
  d. Work with department heads on capital outlay.

Area 6. Office Management
    a. Work with secretarial staff in terms of service to teachers.
    b. Work with student assistants in terms of service to teachers.
    c. Work with secretarial staff in terms of service to students.
    d. Work with secretarial staff in terms of assignment and morale.
Area 7. Public Relations
    a. Work with other city agencies in developing coordinated programs in areas where the agencies and the school are concerned.
    b. Work with the PTA, with Dads' Clubs, or with Room Mothers.
    c. Meet with interested citizens, help plan and establish a program for discussing problems involving the school.

It will be noted that, in all the above, interaction occurs between the student of administration and other people involved in the task. Thus the course might be assumed to be primarily a course in personnel administration. But such is not the case. Since operationally, no matter what the task, people are ultimately involved, the field study, internship, or practicum must rest mainly on tasks that people engage in.

However, in a number of these areas the administrator functions with things. And while things are never as important as people, they have significance and should not be overlooked in a seminar and field work devoted to the training of an administrator. A breakdown showing similar areas having a thing orientation can be organized (see below), although from the outset things usually spill over into practices involving people.

Area 1 below includes the statement "Develop a plan for extra duty schedules." Insofar as possible such a plan must take into consideration the feelings and attitudes of the teachers. The task itself seems comparatively simple. In a thing-oriented sense, it is indeed. But when 15 or 20 people have such assignments, what appears on the surface as thing-oriented has much meaning for the people involved.

Area 1. Administration of Teaching Personnel
    a. Write an induction program for new teachers.
    b. Develop a plan for extra duty schedules.
    c. Establish an evaluation form.
Area 2. Pupil Personnel
    a. Enter and classify new pupils.
    b. List the causes of truancy in your district.
    c. Develop a more functional system of records.
Area 3. Curriculum Development and Supervision of Instruction
    a. Write a curriculum for a given grade or subject field.
    b. Formulate a list of possible field trips.
    c. Develop a more practical scheduling procedure.
Area 4. School Finance and Business Administration
    a. Assume the responsibility for cafeteria counts.
    b. Develop a system of supply-management.
    c. Inventory all items of equipment in one school.
    d. Analyze the problem of transportation in your district.

Area 5. School Housing
    a. Make a population study, as the basis of determining location of new school sites.
    b. Plan the cleaning schedule for your building; check custodial service.
    c. Determine priority list for building repairs.
    d. Prepare plans for a school custodian's workshop.
Area 6. Office Management
    a. Check teachers' registers.
    b. Prepare records for pupils transferring out of the district.
    c. Prepare State Transportation Report.
    d. Prepare payroll reports.
    e. Make out statistical reports.
Area 7. Allied Activities
    a. Prepare policy statement regarding pupil participation.
    b. Prepare policy regarding assembly programs.
    c. Prepare policy statement regarding the use of materials.
Area 8. Public Relations
    a. Write a school bulletin to be sent to classes regarding the various activities for the week.
    b. Duplicate a monthly PTA Bulletin.
    c. Release publicity concerning school activities to local papers.

Seminar Discussions

Not only does the instructor need to observe the student as he performs these services and interact with him in individual evaluative sessions, but he must also interact with the trainee's superiors as well. It is important, therefore, to bring supervisors and administrators who are concerned with the program into the program itself. This supervision should come both from the college and from the district, and it might be similar to the kinds of supervision utilized in practice teaching, where the master teacher representing the district has day-to-day supervision over the student teacher and the college supervisor is involved in visitation.

Research indicates that students again and again cite practice teaching as one of their most useful experiences, perhaps *the* most useful. They also indicate that they would have liked to devote more time to practice teaching. Such practice in the field of administration should be similarly useful in the training of administrators.

Three factors are required, however, if the work is to have optimal meaning. First, the student must have sufficient time so that the various tasks in which administrators are ordinarily engaged (at least the most important ones) can be experienced in depth. Unless a considerable amount of self-evaluation and analysis of procedures is achieved, more harm than good may be done. Superficial answers may lead to the manipulation of people instead of service to faculties and to students.

Second, a good deal of interaction between the local administrator, the college supervisor, and the trainee must be established in the field. Without this interaction, and the constant evaluation that goes on with it, field work may degenerate to "busy work." On many occasions the trainee could be asked to write a page or two of self-evaluation in which the following questions are answered: (1) How has the candidate succeeded in the administrative tasks? (2) Where has the candidate failed or what has he left undone? (3) What steps should be taken in the future?

As stated elsewhere, no administrative task is ever completed and no individual ever performs perfectly. Over a sufficient length of time, it is hoped that the trainee will accept the limitations and frustrations implicit in both teaching and administration.

Third, it is important for the members of the group and the college supervisor to meet together weekly in order to exchange ideas concerning practical experiences, problems, some of their successes, and some of their failures. It is literally impossible to anticipate all the problems that will come up in any administrative task. But if a group can talk over ideas and solutions on a continuing basis, there is the opportunity to discuss a wider variety of problems than would otherwise be perceived.

Obviously such field work will be more advantageous if a relatively small group is engaged in it.

Discussion Related to Formal Course Work

While field work and internship need to be encouraged, an experiential curriculum, intensified for trainees preparing for advanced roles, i.e., of assistant superintendent or superintendent, should also be organized, with the cooperation of school districts, in order that theory and practice may be integrated. Formal course work divides itself basically into three areas in regard to these roles.

1. The Area of Personnel and Guidance
    a. Administration of teaching personnel including
        (1) Teacher selection
        (2) Teacher evaluation
        (3) Teacher retention
    b. Administration of pupil personnel services including
        (1) Selection and training of counselors
        (2) Individual testing
        (3) Group testing
    c. Research in the above areas
2. The Area of Curriculum and Supervision
    a. Administration of the various schools including
        (1) Integration and articulation of the elementary and secondary schools
        (2) Establishment of in-service training programs for teachers
        (3) The establishment of workshops
    b. Supervision of certificated personnel including
        (1) Classroom visitation for purposes of in-service training and evaluation
        (2) Establishment of curriculum committees for purposes of revision of curricula

        - (3) Grade level and K-12 meetings of teachers in subject fields for purposes of enriching the curriculum
    - c. Research in the above areas
- 3. The Area of Facilitating Services: Administration of Housing, Finance, Etc.
    - a. The study of school law including
        - (1) State rules and regulations pertaining to the function of the school district
        - (2) Federal and local rules and regulations
    - b. The study of school housing
        - (1) Federal and state support
        - (2) Site preparation
        - (3) Purposes and types of construction
        - (4) Integration of student needs and school housing
        - (5) Integration of curriculum demands in school housing
    - c. The study of school finance
        - (1) Areas of federal aid to education, past, present, and future
        - (2) State financial support to the district
        - (3) District forms of finance
        - (4) Non-certificated and purchasing
    - d. Research in the above areas

Three things become clear with this breakdown. First, there are many variations possible in the pattern. However, since it is our belief that the tendency at present is to integrate services and group them in some logical fashion, perhaps the variation would consist largely of setting up different kinds of grouping rather than changing the areas too radically. Thus, it is possible for a smaller district to assign to an assistant superintendent both guidance and instruction responsibilities or personnel and business duties and still not change the above analysis substantially. Second, even if department heads supervise the individual in all areas, they would need to have a considerable grasp of them in order to be able to supervise and administer adequately. Also, responsibilities would have to be delegated to directors or administrative assistants, who would have charge of the divisions involved in such a grouping. It is here that the district can play an important role and assume greater and greater responsibility through an internship program which actually gives the candidate practical experience on the various levels of administrative responsibility. Third, where the district is a very large urban one, a deputy superintendent may be placed in charge of a cadre of three or four assistant superintendents having the duties outlined above. Here again, such an individual needs to have training in all of the areas suggested.

THE DISSERTATION AS A CULMINATING ACTIVITY

The pressure of the society is such that most central office administrators, superintendents, deputy superintendents, assistant superintendents, directors, etc., will be required in time to obtain the doctor's degree – either the Ph.D. or the Ed.D.

The pressure does not come from colleges or universities although many people, naïve about such matters, seem to think it does, just as they think that teachers, rather than trade unions or corporations, are responsible for compulsory education. Rather, the change is being forced by boards of education, who more and more are using the degree as a means of screening candidates and who give preference to applicants possessing it. Thus people who are training administrators must consider seriously the inclusion of the doctoral program in their sequence.

To illustrate, in a relatively small district of some 350 teachers, the assistant superintendent had a doctorate, as did the director of elementary education and the high school principal. All three had also had some college or university teaching experience. In view of such facts it would seem foolish to limit the opportunities for obtaining a doctoral degree to a few centers in the country, since even moderate-sized districts will soon come to expect administrative personnel to have the degree. It might be more sensible, through screening and the raising of standards, to limit the number of students to those who have the ability and skill to undertake such a program. The idea would be, then, to have each institution build up its resources for the offering of the Ed.D. or Ph.D. to a select group of outstanding graduate students of educational administration.

This approach would, of course, involve the building of resource centers (libraries, research opportunities, etc.), the selection of outstanding educators (men and women who have made or who show promise of making significant contributions both in academic and in practical ways to education), and the establishment of a program of screening and qualifications such as that discussed above. The culminating activity for those aspiring to the doctorate in educational administration would be the dissertation, together with the oral and written examinations. However, one of the problems related to the dissertation has been the nature of past research in educational administration.

Bretsch, in a study done at the University of California at Berkeley in 1957, analyzed doctoral dissertations for the past 25 years that were accepted in California.[6] Not one of them, he felt, was a "major contribution to learning." Relatively few were even "minor contributions" to learning. The majority fell in a lower category which he called "the status study"; they reported what the student had observed or had done as an administrator with conclusions based on a description of the status quo rather than controlled research. In an unpublished dissertation a few of these facts are quoted:

> . . . depth studies have not, on the whole, been forthcoming. That the need for depth research in this field is one of great importance is well illustrated by an article by Chase . . . : *Factors for Satisfaction in Teaching*. Questionnaire returns

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[6] Howard S. Bretsch, "An Evaluation of Doctoral Dissertations in Educational Administration in California," *California Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. VIII, No. 2 (March 1957).

from 1784 teachers in over 200 systems in 43 states indicated that 86.8 per cent of them saw "Dynamic and stimulating leadership by building principal" as being of greatest importance regarding satisfaction. It also is interesting to note that "Regular and active participation in preparation of salary schedules" was listed by 79.4 per cent; "Regular and active participation in making policy for grouping, promotion and control of pupils" was listed by 80.3 per cent and "Regular and active participation in curriculum making" was listed by 74 per cent as being of great importance in the creation of satisfactory teaching environment. The latter three items might be considered, in the broader sense, as a function of the "Dynamic and stimulating leadership" listed as most important.[7]

Since "Dynamic and stimulating leadership" per se carries with it relatively little insight into what "dynamic and stimulating leadership" is, it would seem that the study of educational leadership and the investigation into the personality of the administrator would be of utmost importance. Unfortunately, some of the studies have tended to confuse, rather than to clarify the picture. Houston . . . , in studying fifty "outstanding" elementary school principals, drew a profile picture of them which, it was hoped, would help in determining what qualities made for outstanding educational leadership. But the study dealt with such superficialities as:

1. The principal may be either a man or a woman.
2. The principal is a native of the United States born of native parents.
3. The principal is the offspring of parents in the lower-middle socio-economic class.
4. The parents of the principal have 9.6 years of schooling.
55. The principal regularly reads at least five professional magazines.
56. The principal subscribes to and reads regularly three magazines a month in addition to his professional reading.
57. The principal regards his reading, especially his reading of professional journals, as one of his most significant activities for professional growth as a resource person and leader for his staff.
58. The principal holds the following opinions concerning preparation for his job.[8]

Clearly, basic research in educational administration should be more than this. As a matter of fact almost all practices in administration need to be studied in a scientifically controlled fashion using methods proposed by experts in the fields of educational behavioral and social science research.

Some of the areas that certainly could stand carefully designed research are the following:

1. The Nature and Quality of Interaction: What kinds of interaction might be conducive to heightening morale, developing ego strength and personal satisfactions of members of the group? On the other hand, what kinds of interaction tend to reduce morale, destroy ego-strength, and eliminate personal satisfactions?

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[7] Interestingly enough, the item, "Salary is comparatively good" was checked by only 52 per cent of the sample and was last on the list.

[8] Benjamin M. Sachs, unpublished dissertation.

In our files we have over 100 tapes made of actual interaction procedures involving 35 or 40 administrators which, for want of further research funds, we have been unable to have typed and to study or analyze in the light of the above conclusions. *FIRO*, by Schutz, suggests a number of designs which might help create patterns for this kind of research.[9]

> 2. An Analysis of the Ability to Diagnose Problems: Basic research is necessary to discover and understand the kind and degree of sophistication and diagnostic ability that administrators may hold. Such diagnostic ability would apply to understanding of curriculum, teacher selection, pupil personnel, teacher evaluation, etc. Indeed, the degree of the diagnostic ability is in direct ratio to the ability to perform adequately as an administrator.

For some time now, studies on the characteristics of dropouts have been appearing. Two factors have emerged in almost all of the studies:[10] (1) tenuous and inadequate relationships with adults, starting with parents and then with teachers; (2) failure in school. These youngsters not only have made an unsuccessful social contact, but then have not succeeded academically. Yet no one has taken a group of youngsters with these characteristics, matched and split the sample, then tried actively to compensate for these two factors in the experimental group while leaving the control group alone in order to see whether counteracting the "failures" helps or not. Under such an experimental design, perhaps in the elementary school, it might be possible to prevent dropouts by better diagnosis and prediction and prescribing more effective remediation.

> 3. Areas Involving Communication: Obviously until the administrator has insights concerning the kinds of interaction he establishes, he is not very sophisticated. Further, unless he has some realization of his skill in diagnosis, he is not too effective. But unless he is able to communicate this insight and diagnosis to others so that they can implement many of the things which he has perceived, he has not performed adequately as an administrator. Thus much research is needed in the areas of communication.

The above-mentioned research on dropouts might involve communication factors. The teachers of the "experimental group" would be instructed to do all in their power to express acceptance in order to strengthen adult-pupil relationships and definitely to give measures of academic success in order to prevent failure. This approach would also bring to the conscious level a consideration of communication between the administrator and the teachers.

Such research, together with the extension of the types of problems discussed in master's theses, could make research in educational administration more realistic and raise its standards. It would make the dissertation more respectable and the results more applicable in future use. Indeed, it could raise the professional level of education. The dissertation that extended knowledge by dealing with matters studied by controlled, scientific method would in our judgment form a means of indicating the qualifications of a person desiring to obtain the doctorate. And it would enhance the doctorate itself.

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[9] Schutz, *op. cit.*

[10] Sheldon Glueck, *The Problems of Delinquency* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1959).

INTERNSHIP AND THE RELATION OF THE COLLEGE TO THE DISTRICT

The use of the district for purposes of the selection and training of administrators was discussed in Chapter 14. We have also indicated that the field study can become an excellent tool in the training of administrators. In this regard the district is the natural, and in many instances the only, realistic unit for action research. We have discussed, too, the idea of the dissertation as advancing knowledge in the field of education and educational administration. Here again the district can function uniquely in bringing to bear some of the emerging concepts of depth research which will help to re-evaluate and to create more adequate designs for both the field study, the master's thesis or problem, and the dissertation.

Now we wish to analyze with some care the integrated approach which involves both the training institution and the district in the training of the administrator.

The District Cadre

Perhaps the first step in such integration would be the establishment of a cadre of at least one representative from the training institution and some district administrators. But even more important, the group should have a majority of outstanding classroom teachers. The greater the involvement of teachers, the greater the enhancement of education as a profession. For too long now the training of administrators has been left almost entirely in the hands of district administrators and professors of educational administration. Inclusion of outstanding teachers, perhaps even teachers who are not themselves interested in becoming administrators, would, we feel, lead to an upgrading of the entire profession.

The number of people in such a group would, of course, be determined by each district; however, it would seem reasonable to have at least one person from the training institution, one administrator from the central office staff, an elementary and a secondary principal, and two or three teachers from the elementary and two or three teachers from the secondary school. Teachers need to become deeply concerned with the kinds of administrators they prefer and the kinds of problems that administration has to handle. One of the better ways of reaching this goal is to establish a district cadre.

Preliminary Tasks of the Cadre. Two of the first tasks to be assigned to the group are to determine criteria for outstanding educational leaders and to select young men and women who might meet them. The criteria have been discussed elsewhere in this book, but each district ought to determine its own criteria, as well.

It is sufficient here to say that such people should be excellent teachers, should be dedicated to the profession of education, should exhibit a great deal of creativity, and should themselves be willing to undertake a 10- to 15-year experiential and academic program. The power motive and the motive for status should be clearly subordinate to the motive for service, as already mentioned, and dedication should be in terms of willingness to go beyond the ordinary call of duty for one's students. Most important, such individuals are not to be picked because they are conforming and do not "rock the boat" but because they have this dedication and are willing to stand up and be counted when serving their own students and the profession.

In other words, the cadre is looking with great care for teachers who exhibit the potential for developing empathy with others. After selections have been made, a screening program is then put into effect similar to the one outlined in Chapter 16. Those who are selected then become part of the ongoing field service and internship program.

The Advising Function of the District. We have discussed previously the function of the professor of educational administration with a small group. However, both the teachers selected for the cadre and the candidate's immediate superior, i.e., the principal, have this ongoing function. At the present time, because ordinarily, no advisory procedure is followed, people often go into administration for reasons that are shallow and superficial. If selection is made by teachers and administrators, with the advice of a member of a training institution and accepting the counsel of teachers, administrators, and the assigned professor, the chances are first, that the motivation of those selected will have far deeper meanings to the profession as well as to themselves; second, that a number of people will be selected who had not thought of being particularly interested in administration; third, that the discipline will be upgraded in terms of talent; and fourth, that the training program as well as the research will become more meaningful and more professional.

The District's Experiential Program

Under supervision of this cadre the 10- or 15-year experiential program could then be put into effect to provide experiences in teaching and administration. It would include more than a year's work in field study or a year's work as an intern. It would involve elementary school teaching with attendant observation at all levels while preparing for secondary school instruction. At least three years of such teaching would be necessary in order that the future administrator might become acquainted with the elementary school both as a professional practitioner and as a person observing the work of all the other people working at the elementary school level.

Similarly, in the secondary school the candidate would teach in his chosen fields while observing other areas. In addition, he would assume responsibilities for extracurricular activities that were of interest to him and would tend to promote his insights into secondary school problems. During this time he might be engaged in obtaining either his supervisory or his pupil personnel credential.

The candidate would then enter the phase of working with children and teachers in a semisupervisory or guidance capacity. He might take on the responsibility for extracurricular activities in a large elementary or secondary school, or he might do pupil personnel work in an elementary or secondary school.[11] At this point the candidate would also have opportunities if it seemed desirable to work as the head of a department for a secondary school for purposes of further increasing his understandings and insights regarding subject supervision and curriculum development. At the same time he would be working toward his master's thesis and his principal's credential and would then be ready for a principalship.

Should it be indicated, the candidate could be encouraged to move toward a higher degree, i.e., the doctorate, in order that he might serve at the central office level. A number of things become obvious with such a program.

1. It would take a minimum of 10 and possibly 15 years; however, the selection of these candidates could be made after their first three to five years of teaching, so they might be presumed to be in their middle 20's. A 10- to 15-year program would mean that their educational leadership would extend over 25 to 30 years since they would be ready to accept such responsibility between the ages of 35 and 40.
2. A number of people could stop at various points along the way, according to their abilities and their wishes as well as the district needs. Constant counseling would be in order, to help the individual find that level of performance which was most satisfactory to him. The idea that to serve the profession best comes first is established when the individual is served most insightfully, for then the profession reaps the greatest benefits ordinarily.
3. Such a program contains both the academic, the theoretical, and the practical as well as affording many useful areas for research. It integrates the district and the training institution, and it provides service to all concerned, including the candidate, the district, and various services.
4. Finally, it gives greater meaning to practicing administrators in terms of their service to teachers, the candidates, the district, and the training institution.

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[11] A moderate-sized district where the writer was a consultant appoints young men who are training for administration as assistants to the principal. Their function is to work with teachers, parents, and pupils in curricular areas such as remedial reading, the accelerated program, the mentally retarded program, the slow-learner program, etc.

Chapters 16 and 17 have considered some theoretical and practical aspects of training future administrators, and a number of formal and informal phases of such a program. Many of our suggestions are already in effect, but some are still in the realm of future possibilities. Much money has been invested in the training of future administrators, particularly by the Kellogg and Ford foundations. It might be wise to take an unhurried, sophisticated look at some of the proposals mentioned here and others made elsewhere in order that future grants be spent judiciously.

Section D · The Administrator and People

In an address delivered at the thirty-second annual Conference on Educational Administration at Harvard University on July 14, 1960, Neil McElroy, Chairman of the Board of Procter and Gamble and former United States Secretary of Defense, said,

> If there is one basic requirement, it is this: to understand clearly, as a people, the reasons for our past accomplishment — the sources of our present strength; and then, to apply this knowledge to the test before us.
>
> In our relatively short history, we have made remarkable progress — progress to which many factors have contributed. We think of our natural resources, the characteristics we have developed as a people, the system that encourages initiative, and the incentive inherent in our kind of society. These are essential elements in the story of our growth.
>
> But there is another of pervasive importance. It supports all of these. It gives vitality and purpose to each of them. It is at the heart of all we have done — all we hope to do.
>
> It is our American system of education.
>
> From this, we know, we have derived great strength for our side. But, in recent years especially, we have seen our advantage sharply challenged. Today we are well aware that education is no monopoly of the free societies.
>
> The very ability of others to compete vigorously means that they too are using education of their people effectively.
>
> In education, then, we find both a common denominator of these competing systems and a decisive testing ground of their basic difference.
>
> Education is the Key.
>
> So, we come to this inescapable conclusion: that education is — and will be — the key to success or failure for each of these competing ideologies.

> If our educational system functions at or near its optimum our nation will thrive and grow. If we allow this system to fail to achieve its potential, we must expect to decline as a free society.

If education is our "ultimate weapon" and the struggle for men's minds the most important struggle in the world today, then we must establish more and more adequately the means by which our premises are enhanced and our goals more perfectly achieved.[1]

If the means we use destroy our premises and move us farther away from our democratic goals, they destroy the foundation of our society and what it aspires to. We have explained both the premises and the goals at considerable length in other sections and have discussed some of the ways a future educational leader might be trained to see them more clearly. It is our purpose in Section D to describe the administrator's role as he seeks to enhance the premises and move toward the goals.

Interpersonal Relations and Learning. In a film of a study by Dr. Harry F. Harlow entitled "Mother Love" the psychologist establishes through a carefully planned research design the importance of early contact between mother and offspring in the case of rhesus monkeys. Without "contact comfort" the monkeys become fearful and autistic and may even die. They run away from any new experience. They lose all self-identification. They cannot function adequately in any way. On the other hand, early contact even with an inanimate mother gives security, comfort, and reassurance, and they are able to face new and frightening experiences more adequately and realistically. They are also able to make "friends" more easily.

According to Harlow, there is a parallel between the monkeys' and human behavior. Our own experience leads us to believe that autistic children have learned to fear because, rightly or wrongly, the world has become a dangerous place to them in which people cannot be trusted and should not be contacted. In Sullivan's view, schizophrenics speak incoherently or divorce themselves from reality because they are fearful of sharing themselves with others. The world is too perilous a place to them, and to be in contact with others is to lay oneself open to danger. Their only defense is flight, and the only way to maintain a degree of safety is to eschew all relationships.

Where we part company with some psychologists is at the idea that such experiences, if undergone early, can never be ameliorated at all. The human being may be damaged through early experiences, but he is also so resilient that he can come to a considerable degree of insight and understanding if he can form empathic relationships and have meaningful human contacts.

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[1] As mentioned before, such a goal, like a mathematical limit of infinity, may never be actually achieved, but we must continue to move toward it.

This is not to say that the people teachers and educational leaders meet have necessarily been deprived of meaningful human contacts; but such relationships are particularly significant because they enhance the fundamental premises mentioned in Section A and the goals and insights described in Section B. Thus if we are discussing the dignity of the individual, the rights of minorities, the place of argumentation and persuasion, and democratic power, we are also saying that certain kinds of interpersonal relationship must be established in order for these premises to have fertile soil. Otherwise, regardless of any lip service paid to them, they will wither and die. In a like sense, if we are talking about self-worth, respect for others, and a love of learning, we are in reality describing a quality of human contact and human understanding without which these, too, would wither and die.

The question that remains is: How can these tasks be accomplished? We have discussed theoretically and in many places such topics as: (1) the self-image and its effect upon interpersonal relations; (2) how people can be enhanced or destroyed; (3) what one's perception of the world has to do with interpersonal relations; (4) how subject matter affects behavioral change and interpersonal relations; (5) the price the innovator pays; (6) what we mean when we say we support people; (7) how a group can create innovations; (8) how skills affect interpersonal relations; (9) the evaluation of interpersonal relations; (10) interpersonal relations in school and society; and (11) the relationship among the parent, the teacher, and the administrator.

How to translate these from theory into practice will be our concern in the last section of this text. We do not believe that the results will be either all-inclusive or exhaustive, but perhaps guidelines will be established to suggest further development of the "how" of doing some of these things.

18

The Administrator and the Public

The purpose of this chapter is to suggest various approaches to interpersonal relationships with the public. We will deal with some general statements of procedures involving groups as well as individuals. The statements, as far as possible, will be divorced from theory and will be applicable by any practicing administrator or trainee in education. Then we will take up some research and its practical application in more generalized areas such as public relations, school-community relations, P.T.A., etc.

The chapter will also include some consideration of the relationship between public and private agencies, interpersonal relations of school and society, and the influence of social class on learning. Obviously, this is a complex task, and no more than a few examples and practices can be given to each area. What we are attempting is to set directions that seem to us to have meaning for the future of the profession and the discipline of administration.

Finally, we will discuss briefly some specific methods of public relations as regards parents, and the ways and means of communicating with them through bulletins, report cards, activities, etc.

Procedures Which Apply to Most Individuals

Since the group in general is usually stronger than the individual, it should support the individual.

> In a faculty meeting Mr. Jones, the physics teacher, always disagrees with the majority decision. This provokes consternation on the part of the administration and many of the teachers. They see Mr. Jones as irritating, rebellious, and non-productive. On the other hand, another, perhaps weaker group, who might like to be as non-conforming as Mr. Jones, encourage this deviational behavior through private conversations with him in his classroom and corridors and at social gatherings. The administrator has been heard to remark, "What a wonderful faculty

that would be if only I could get rid of a few teachers." And, "Why doesn't a certain faculty member know when [illegible]?"

These expressions only crystallize the hostility of those who regard Mr. Jones as an inactive, destructive personality. They also immobilize the group who secretly support Mr. Jones and harden their feelings of hostility toward the administrator. Thus, regardless of whether Mr. Jones is a non-conforming teacher, an outspoken parent, or an individualistic student, when he is perceived in this way by whoever is the "leader of the group," the leader helps to disrupt the group's unity despite the fact that, because of certain kinds of pressures, all may appear to be calm on the surface. What is happening is a kind of retreat from the reality of insightful human interaction to the less insightful interaction which is conformity.

But, suppose the situation is this:

> Mr. Jones, the physics teacher, has a general tendency to raise questions and objections and point out weaknesses in both administrative and peer decisions. The principal sees Mr. Jones as one of the checks and balances on his thinking and derives a certain pleasure from knowing that if Mr. Jones' objections are correct, his procedures will be strengthened; if Mr. Jones is wrong, this will also become apparent in discussion, and to make errors is part of Mr. Jones' right as a person. The administrator is often heard to say things like "Mr. Jones may be wrong this time, but he often clarifies issues." And, "It's a good thing Mr. Jones is here. He helped me think more clearly."

Under such conditions, the group may begin to test its own individual strengths, and a period of seeming anarchy may ensue, but with patience a democratic give-and-take is often worked out.[1]

So the leader has utilized his strength to preserve the dignity of the individual and has encouraged the group, stronger than the individual, not to force the latter toward conformity but to learn how to handle differences and to integrate them or to eliminate them from the decision, whichever seems more desirable at that time. Support, then, does not preclude differences, nor does it suggest that one must accept all decisions or ideas. It embraces the idea that one accepts the individual's right to explain his position, for if the group demands uncritical support from everyone, superficial conformity is usually the result. Or, if the leader demands unthinking support, he may even encourage tyranny and authoritarianism.

The Need for Approval

Mitigating factors arise since the individual wants and needs the approval of the group and the leaders of the group. This has been called "belongingness" by some. We have described it in the Foreword as the need for contact with other humans. It is what leads practically all people, even those most critical at first, to become more and more supportive of the group and of the administrator as he is accepted and his ideas are carefully considered. The sole exception has been mentioned in the foregoing footnote. But while some people may exploit this situation, they form such a small percentage of the population that usually they can be identified. At present our greatest error seems to be in the direction of fancying them to be omnipresent and of thinking that overly critical and possibly anxiety-provoked individuals all belong in this category.

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[1] The exception here is the dangerous individual who seeks to manipulate the group for his own self-aggrandizement and power, as has been mentioned elsewhere (see Chapter 10).

Respect for Others' Opinions

Another important factor to be kept in mind is that the individual's differences of opinion as they are appreciated and understood can begin to help the administrator and the group clarify their own ideas, possibly in order to strengthen and enrich them and possibly to shift or even to discard them. In any case, these differences enable all the members of the group to obtain greater insights.

Acceptance of Strengths and Weaknesses

Finally, such consideration for the individual ordinarily helps him to become more consciously aware of his own strengths and his weaknesses. Admission of weaknesses usually increases anxieties, but with a supportive administrator and group, such anxieties are not too debilitating, and the individual is better able to cope with them because the group has also accepted his strengths. In fact, the inclusion of a person's right to differ has been a tacit admission of his strength; the acceptance of many of his ideas, a way of working "from strengths." Thus he may become far more self-evaluative than before, for part of his lack of self-evaluation was due to "defense-of-self" based on the feeling that a revelation of self would be exploited. Since he no longer has to defend himself, he may be better able to face himself realistically as he develops faith in the group and in the administrator. He may even begin to feel sufficiently secure to ask the group, a member of the group, or the administrator for assistance when he genuinely feels he needs it.

Group Developmental Process

Such a process, we feel, is applicable to all groups whether they are "lay" groups (citizens' committees, parent-teacher associations, etc.), teachers' groups (faculties, professional organizations, etc.), or student groups (classes, clubs, etc.). One limiting factor is that the group needs to be small enough for each member to feel that the procedure applies intimately to him specifically. As this interaction takes place, a developmental process like the following often takes place as well:

Phase One: Rugged Individualism. Here the individual says, "So the chairman (or the administrator) claims to be democratic. Very well, let's see if he is. I'll

> just raise all the objections I can, find all the loopholes in his argument I can. I shall stand up for my rights as I perceive them. Let's see if he can take that." A period of intense struggle may ensue as a result of this attitude, in which the leader seems "lost." Often his superiors force him to take action too soon because of this situation, and the chance to work it through is lost.
>
> One danger must be mentioned. In no case are ideas to be incorporated, whether from the majority or minority, which are inimical to the democratic process. So if a group presses for getting rid of some individual's "progressive" ideas, the administration must protect that individual's right to them.
>
> Phase Two: You Scratch My Back, and I'll Scratch Yours (The Caucus). Here the individual has accepted the idea that the leader or the administrator is committed to his individual rights, but now he says, "I can manipulate the situation for my ends. If there were two or three of us who felt this way together, what could he do then?" So he attempts to line up two or three people who present a single point of view. If, as a minority, these people are protected, and if, short of the destruction of a group, their ideas are incorporated into the group decisions, and responsibilities are given to them, the third phase is reached.
>
> Phase Three: The Man on Horseback. This is the most dangerous phase of all, for the individual now says, "I have tested the administrator (or leader) both as an individual and with those people who perceive as I do, and he has come out 'smelling like a rose.' We can trust him. He's all right. He is a good leader. Let's not shake the boat. Let's follow him. There aren't many such." It is easy to see why this is the most dangerous phase, for it is extremely tempting for a person in a position of leadership to rest easy in the saddle at this point and to assume the role of the "man on horseback." When he does this, he denies the fundamental premises of democratic interaction. Strangely enough, it then becomes his job to encourage individuals to return to Phases One and Two although with much more constructive ideas and perceptions. And after a time, it is to be hoped the next phase begins.
>
> Phase Four: Democratic Cooperation. There is a feeling of faith and trust in the group, the individuals in the group, and the leadership. Not that individuals concur and acquiesce, or disagree and speak their minds. It is as though the individual has said, "This is the group to which I belong, in which I have pride and a task to perform, in which I have dignity and rights. This is a group of people whom I can praise and blame, whom I can extol and criticize, but with whom I wish to associate and be identified. If changes are needed, I will help make them. If the status quo be desirable, I will help maintain it. But I am at all times free to help make these decisions."

It is not always men of "ill will" who hold up this development. Douglas Michell, in an unpublished article entitled "Beware the Bigoted Liberal" (Sacramento State College, 1964), speaks of the humanist who holds to his position with the same bigotry as the reactionary and so prevents an evolutionary process:

> . . . It appears to me that some persons who consider themselves liberal become so obsessed with the desirability of modifying existing institutions and traditions that they ignore an essential element of liberalism — tolerance of others' views

and open-mindedness. They present the paradoxical picture of advocating liberal ideas with the blind, arrogant faith of the bigot. This behavior contributes to the establishment of a climate which is inimical to change and increases the frequency and intensity of practices which the liberal finds objectionable.

Perhaps these are the psychopaths in our society, who seek only to manipulate groups and individuals to their own ends. Or perhaps they appear because we have not been willing to face the travail in the four phases just outlined. Other writers might present other phases, it is true, but regardless of what they are some procedure needs to be undertaken and developed if the behavior of individuals is to be influenced in the direction of democratic premises and goals.

Time and Continuity. Not only must the group be of a size commensurate with establishing the attitudes described above, but it must have sufficient time to work through the early phases in order to arrive at the phase of democratic cooperation. This is a continuous task, for groups are always being set up, developing, and dying. Individuals are always coming to and leaving them. Further, as the society becomes more complex it is necessary to devise more and more methods for decentralizing and establishing these groups, which resemble in no small measure the original town meetings of our founding fathers.

Cooperative Thinking. J. Cecil Parker has a list of suggestions for participating in cooperative thinking through group discussion.

1. Each person should do his own thinking. Don't try "to save time" by telling the group the right answer. The leader is not a group instructor, but a social engineer, trying to arrange conditions so that each will do creative thinking.
2. Group discussion is not a debating society. We do not argue for the fun of it. The issues are of great importance; wise men disagree in their views; our task is to find more truth than we bring to any group meeting. We are in a cooperative quest. Our thinking is creative rather than combative.
3. Ask yourself which ideas, experiences, and differences are basic, fundamental, and most worth discussing.
4. When discussion wanders, restate the question and get a new start. Sometimes, if the side-line is especially important, put it up to the group, "Shall we follow this interesting issue that has come up, or shall we return to the plan of discussion originally adopted?"
5. Make short statements; not speeches.
6. Do not pass any important matter that is not clear to you. Sometimes individuals hear unfamiliar terms and assume that everyone else must understand; hence they fear it would be humiliating to ask for explanations or illustrations. This is untrue. . . .
7. If you find yourself talking more than other members of the group, train yourself to pass over minor points and to speak on only a few carefully chosen issues.
8. Use special care to be fair to positions represented by a minority or not represented at all in the group. If you are aware of a position not being adequately

represented, present it as its adherents would like to hear it stated, then explain your disagreement.

9. Challenge contributions you cannot fully accept. Do not keep your disagreements quiet in the mistaken notion that it is better manners to pretend to agree when you do not. . . .
10. The "either-or" attitude is on the whole not fruitful. Search rather for new means which enable both sets of values to be pursued without clash. . . .
11. When there is some confusion over a diversity of opinions expressed, a minute of silence can do much to help members rise to a clearer perspective of what has been said. In suggesting this pause the chairman should restate the precise issue under discussion. . . .
12. Be on the lookout for different uses of the same word. Call for illustrations whenever this difference becomes confusing. Do not wrangle over a verbal definition.
13. Trust the group. There is no person in it who is not superior to the rest in at least one respect. The experience of all is richer than the experience of any. The group as a whole can see further and more truly than its best member. . . .
14. For every discussion there is available a limited amount of time. Each individual should help make it possible to utilize the time more effectively. To attempt too much in too short a time fosters a habit of slipshod and superficial thinking.
15. Summarize (1) whenever a major point is finished before going on to the next; (2) whenever the discussion has been fairly long drawn out or confused; (3) shortly before the close of the long period. Try to use the words of members of the group, rather than your translation.[2]

Perhaps the foregoing points are too specific for some, not specific enough for others. Some might disagree with a few of them. In some ways they are too mechanistic and suggest manipulation. Terms like "social engineering," "not a debating society," "make short statements," etc., leave us somewhat uneasy. No matter. They are worthy of contemplation.

PROBLEMS OF HUMAN RELATIONS

Human Relations in School Administration[3]

The importance of human relations has been emphasized by such people as Whitehead in *The Function of Reason,* Kluckhohn in *Mirror for Man,* Griffiths in *Human Relations in Public School Administration* — to mention only a few. Most experts seem to agree that empathic human relations exist for the most part in the face-to-face interactions among individuals in a relatively small group. The principal not only needs to have an understanding of this area but must also assist the teacher to develop skills in human relations. It is his job to release the creative energies of parents, teachers, and students. Further, in developing skills in these various people, who in turn must do likewise for parent groups or students or peers, he becomes involved in a twofold task: he is both practitioner and teacher. So, even though he may be an expert in establishing sound human relations, he needs to do more. Consciously, by example or by statement, he has to reveal some of the things for which he is striving, some of the perceptions and beliefs he holds and his reason for holding them, and some of the techniques he uses to achieve his goals. He has to indicate that many of his reactions stem from his own needs for achievement and recognition and security. He may even have to suggest his own areas of defensiveness, his own desire for acceptance, his own struggle to overcome feelings of inadequacy, and his own tendencies toward hostility and aggression.

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[2] Prepared for the Michigan Study of Secondary School Curriculum by J. Cecil Parker.

[3] The writer is indebted to Charles R. Booth, one of his graduate students, for some of the ideas expressed in this section.

This approach, of course, makes his task both a security-giving and an anxiety-provoking one. But if he avoids it, he cannot honestly indicate his deep awareness of the human condition. Only as he can suggest that he is subject to the same success and failures, the same joys and tribulations, the same completenesses and incompletenesses as are the people he serves does he do so. And thus he may make others more aware of the fact that "Every man's points of views are colored by his inner needs."[4] Further, the administrator must also indicate in his treatment of all these matters that they are congruent with normal behavior. In all but a rare case, he eschews the question "How normal or abnormal is (the person)?" Rather, his question is ". . . How am I as an individual adjusting to the situation and functioning effectively?" (after Hepner).[5] Hepner states these postulates as a therapist. They are paraphrased above because the purpose of the administrator is not exactly the same as that of the therapist. But the purpose of the administrator is also to assist the individual to become more useful, not because of his assets and in spite of his limitations, but because of both of them. It might well be that some limitations may become assets, and, under certain conditions, frustrations become motivating and aggressions lead to greater learning.

Such procedure affords a much greater variety of choices to the administrator. There are no rules and regulations governing these actions despite all assertions to the contrary. The one statement that can be made with certainty is that he faces constant ambiguity. With one person he must be a good listener, with another, a persuasive speaker. One individual seeks direction; another wishes to give it. One individual needs to be given praise before he accomplishes anything in order to achieve feelings of adequacy; another will accept praise only after achievement. Such ambiguities accompany every situation in which the administrator finds himself, Security, belongingness, anxiety, hostility, love, intelligence — all of the words that have great significance for men also carry a stamp of individuality and have unique meanings for each man. As he recognizes this the administrator moves toward becoming a diagnostician in human relations and can achieve greater and greater professional status in his role.

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[4] Harry W. Hepner, *Psychology Applied to Life and Work* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962).

[5] *Ibid.*

Any attempt to avoid ambiguity risks reduction of the role. Some administrators feel that the school is built for students; others, for society; still others, for the parents; still others, for learning. Some administrators hold that teachers must be supported if discipline is to be maintained; others, that students must at all times be self-disciplinary. Some will affirm that counselors cannot discipline or exercise certain kinds of discipline; others, that they can.

These issues themselves are ambiguous. The school is built for all who feel its influence: administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, society, the public, indeed, the nation. What a teacher or counselor does and how he does it depends on his degree of understanding and empathy, for empathy when it occurs will usually shine through any given act. As the administrator becomes conversant with the goals toward which all whom he will meet strive, as he observes the quality of their interaction, he becomes better able to understand the kinds of interaction in which he himself must engage in order to achieve greater effectiveness for them and for himself.

Human Relations and Ethnic Groups

One of the more significant problems always facing the educational leader and becoming daily more pressing is his perception of human relations in regard to ethnic groups in our society. Years ago, in *Man Against Myth*, Dunham told a series of stories concerning perceptions of minority groups. One of these follows:

> "Yes, they get in everywhere," he said. "Why, only yesterday I had lunch at Maxim's. There was a whole tableful of them there."
>
> "Who?" I asked.
>
> "Why, Jews, of course. They get in everywhere."
>
> "Is there any reason why they shouldn't get in?"
>
> His mouth fell open so far that I could see a piece of the roast nestling against his lower teeth. Then he closed his mouth, and for the rest of dinner gave it over entirely to mastication.[6]

In a study of 14 administrators in 1952 such comments as the following were found regarding minority groups:

> "I don't feel there should be any inter-relationships between the colored and the white. That's where I draw the line."
>
> "The greatest problem . . . [is] . . . they want to be white."
>
> "A minority group eventually, if it becomes articulate enough and its cause is right . . . can eventually become a majority group." (Confusion of racial minority with political minority.)

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[6] Barrows Dunham, *Man Against Myth* (Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1947), chap. 19, "That There Are Superior and Inferior Races."

> "Of course, a lot of them . . . [Negroes] . . . just deliberately go out of their way in order to create situations. They know it will be embarrassing to both sides."
>
> "I think they have made themselves a place in society . . . [the Jews] . . . I mentioned a few minutes ago that you can take all the money and divide it evenly and someone would get it. . . . I was thinking of them particularly."
>
> "The Negro . . . he'd be tickled to death to marry somebody with a little white blood in him or one who was all white. I mean they're social climbers, those Negroes are."
>
> "I think they . . . [the Jews] . . . are a little more on the aggressive side and the acquisitive side probably."[7]

Such naïve statements made by men who are educational leaders cannot help damaging the profession of education.

Wilson Riles, in his speech "The Disadvantaged Child," maintains that many administrators as well as teachers do not understand people of different socioeconomic levels or different ethnic groups from their own. He noted that it may come as a shock to us to recognize that the Caucasian woman "kinks" her hair and calls it a permanent wave while the Negro woman "unkinks" her hair and calls it "pressing" her hair. But the point of great significance in human relationship is that both women are in search of that which in their eyes will beautify them. We feel that the reaching for beauty, though it takes different forms, has a universal meaning for man. The unwritten cadenza of classical music is akin to the jazz improvisation, yet there was a time when some supervisors and administrators frowned upon the inclusion of jazz in the music curriculum.

Approaches to the Universals. The factor which may be interfering with insightful human relations with minority groups is unwillingness to examine what is going on at a perceptual and behavioral level. This means getting involved in classifications that are often black or white and ignoring the common attributes of all men. A dichotomous list forms an absolute; it seems at first glance to be security giving, but closer examination proves it to be the reverse. A list of the common qualities, on the contrary, seems very ambiguous and likely to arouse much critical evaluation, but a closer view shows it to stand more firmly and to establish more succinctly the universal truths that undergird human relations and ultimately enhance men. Let us examine such a list:

Universal Activities of Man	*A Logical but Absolute Approach*	*A Universal Approach*
A search for meaning in a religious or secular sense.	The United States is a Christian society and all Christian activities should be emphasized.	Every citizen searches for ethical and spiritual meanings through: Christianity Judaism

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[7] Benjamin M. Sachs, "An Investigation of Attitudes Toward Minorities and 'Race' on the Part of Selected Elementary School Administrators," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 42, No. 1 (January 1956), 38–40.

Universal Activities of Man	*A Logical but Absolute Approach*	*A Universal Approach*
		Buddhism Mohammedanism Agnosticism Atheism
A search for beauty and truth, i.e., through music, art, poetry, etc. (a love of learning).	Classical music is the best form. Classicism in art and poetry, etc., only. Only academic and scientific truth.	All music should be respected — jazz, bebop, etc. All art, poetry, etc. All truth, both objective and affective, academic and non-academic, etc.
A search for self-improvement (self-worth).	Academic and intellectual pursuit is the only way to real self-improvement.	Academic, intellectual, technical, emotional, social, political, psychological, etc. activities — all can help the individual toward self-improvement.
A search for better conditions for self and family.	Middle-class idea only. The status quo. "The poor are lazy," etc.	All men wish to better their condition. Some have greater opportunities, resources, energies, etc.
A search for contribution to society (respect for others).	Conforming ideas. Doing the right thing. Getting along with the "right people."	Self-examination. The need to contribute to others.

If one can accept the idea of *relative approaches* to these universal ideals, he can come closer to putting into practice programs that make sense to the groups he is serving. A teacher or principal who finds himself in a specific environment begins to adjust his understanding and insights in light of these universals and the relative solutions the members of the group he serves may seek.

> A teacher hired by a large urban system was sent to a school in an area that contained many Spanish-American parents. She hit upon the idea of having one of the parents translate the notices to be sent home in Spanish as well as English and took care to send all notices to all parents in both languages. The English-speaking parents were a little puzzled at first. The Spanish-speaking parents were, of course, delighted. The overall reason, when explained by the principal, was treated with considerable appreciation by both groups.

The Commonsense Attitude of Business. Interestingly enough, hardheaded businessmen who hope to sell their products to various subgroups in the society have been doing this sort of thing for years. They have also been advertising in various foreign-language newspapers for a long time. Clearly, their motives are far from idealistic. So such an approach has practical meaning as well as idealistic overtones. Indeed, as a result of this communication the teacher mentioned on page 277 was able to discover several parents who would help teach Spanish to her children.

> One principal discovered that the Christian celebration of Christmas and the Jewish Chanukah (the Feast of Lights) occurred at approximately the same time. The school was in a predominantly Christian middle-class community, but he decided to establish a Christmas program in which the purposes of both ceremonies were explained. Two things surprised him: first, the general, overall approval by the members of the Christian community; and second, that quite a few Jewish families lived in the area and were, of course, deeply appreciative of his wisdom.

Again, such techniques have been used by business and industry for their practical and useful results.

> Long before the so-called *Hot Mikado*, an insightful dramatics director in a high school having a large Negro population produced *The Mikado*, but not with the traditional D'Oyly Carte directions. Rather, he encouraged the students to develop directions that might be more modern. The result was a blending of the traditional and the modern — a bridge between Victorian and modern musical comedy.

This is quite different from the paternalistic idea of the *Hot Mikado*, in which we are saying to a Negro group, "We want to see how different you are." It exemplifies the universal right of any group of actors to interpret any play in light of their experiences and their time.

To look once more at the business world: Automobile manufacturers do not design cars specifically for Negroes or Jews or rich or poor. They design them in various colors and various price levels, and they permit customers to select those which best suit their needs and tastes. It seems to us that only in this way can both the universal quality of men and the uniqueness of the contribution of each particular group and each individual be preserved. This attitude is in keeping with the integration of the idea of universals (e.g., the search for beauty) and differences (e.g., the unique interpretation of the particular group or individual).

THE ADMINISTRATOR AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

Naïvete in Public Relations

We have referred in the previous chapter to the "cookbook" idea of leadership. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the area of public relations. Even as recently as 1964 we find obvious statements like "All professional and non-teaching personnel have roles in a total public relations program." And then, as if to further insult the intelligence of the readers involved, "personnel" is spelled out in detail[8] as consisting of

1. Teachers
2. Coordinators
3. Assistant Superintendent for Educational Opportunity
4. Assistant Superintendent for Funds and Facilities
5. Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds
6. Non-teaching Personnel
7. Superintendent of Schools

Not only is this included in a text on public relations, it is cited as an "example" of written policy on school public relations, which "illustrates" how everyone connected with the schools can be involved with their public relations. Approximately four pages are given over to these so-called methods, all of which delineate tasks and responsibilities and never once deal with qualities that are implicit in human relations and have far more meaning in terms of involvement.

Such statements as Jennings' "Of all living things man is by far most dependent upon social relationships for his happiness and growth"[9] seem to have little to do with public relations according to the above, yet operationally they are probably at the heart of the matter.

> A woman in a highly disturbed state called an assistant superintendent. "One of your high school social studies teachers is teaching from Kinsey's book, *The Sexual Behavior of the American Male*." The administrator, sensing her concern, said that he would investigate the matter and call her back at once. He spoke to the teacher in question and discovered that this was only a passing reference made by a student as he left the class. When the assistant superintendent called the woman, she was not satisfied.
>
> "Would you like to come over and discuss this further?" he asked.
>
> "I have no car," she replied.
>
> "Well, I'll be glad to pick you up." She was taken aback.
>
> "You mean you would drive out and bring me to your office for a conference?" she said, somewhat startled. The administrator assured her that he would do so. Apparently the woman's anxiety was appeased considerably by the notion that the administrator was willing to discuss the curriculum with a patron of the school, even to the point of picking her up and driving her home. The conference was quite successful.

Not all such attempts *are* successful. Nor can all busy administrators spend this much time. The list mentioned on page 281 is fairly useful, of course, but only as a check list. It has no sense of direction and no inherent quality. Later we shall see whether such a list can be utilized in the light of a more sophisticated approach to some of the kinds of communication implicit in public relations.

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[8] Gloria Dapper, *Public Relations for Educators* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1964), p. 16.

[9] Eugene Emerson Jennings, *An Anatomy of Leadership* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960).

The Clinical Approach to Interpersonal Relationships

> The "why" of leadership appears, however, not to reside in any personality trait considered singly, nor even in a constellation of related traits, but in the inter-personal contribution of which the individual becomes capable in a specific setting eliciting such contribution from him. Similarly, isolation appears as but the opposite extreme on this continuum of inter-personal sensitivity between the members of the group and the individual.[10]

When we discuss "interpersonal sensitivity" between members of the group and the individual or between individuals, we approach the clinical notion of interpersonal relationship, and in such a relationship the individual has precedence. Therefore, it becomes the responsibility of the administrator who is concerned with public relations and communication to sensitize himself as much as he can to the individual and to the group with whom he is communicating. Thus paramount in the clinical approach to public relations is the *development and acceptance of individuality*.

The same clinical approach becomes group oriented when the administrator finds himself face to face with a subgroup within his area of operation, i.e., an ethnic group, or a group of parents of the mentally retarded, or a group of businessmen. Regardless of their differences, all have hopes, aspirations, and ideals. For example, the April, 1961, *Crisis* quotes Herman D. Bloch regarding high school graduation for Negroes:

> The importance of the educational process is essential to the future journeyman in order to best utilize the skill and judgment that are required of him. For example, the machinist must first of all have the equivalent of a high school education, a prerequisite for most apprentices seeking job entry in the crafts.

Further, Nathaniel S. Colley, formerly of the California State Board of Education, asserts in his speech "Public Schools, Tool of Democracy," concerned with de facto segregation: "Free universal education in the United States is now an accepted goal. . . ." The National Association of Manufacturers maintains an Education Department with full authority over scholarships and the NAM educational program.[11] The California Council for Retarded Children includes among its policies the following: "Each C.C.R.C. unit has the duty to cooperate with the school boards in its area in implementing the programs necessary to provide the retarded with meaningful educational opportunities."

Regardless of their differences and their biases, such common beliefs make rapprochement and integration possible. When people begin to think this way, rules and regulations concerning publication begin to avoid statements which all can accept but none quite understand, like these:

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[10] *Ibid*, p. 205.

[11] S. Norman Feingold, *Scholarships, Fellowships and Loans* (Cambridge, Mass.: Bellman Publishing Co., 1955).

1. School public relations must be honest in interest; invite lay public to closer inspection of schools.
2. School public relations must be intrinsic in school program.
   a. Not utterances from central school administrative offices.
   b. All people connected with school are part of the program.
3. School public relations must be continuous.
   a. Not a series of crises.
   b. "Opinion developed not on spot but out of mysterious interplay between present situation and past experiences, present attitudes, and emotions of individuals."
   c. Shakespeare's "Too fast arrives as tardy as too slow" is a good motto to follow.
4. School public relations must be positive in approach.
   a. People do not like to be contradicted.
   b. Misrepresentation can sometimes be corrected.
   c. Not attached to any educational bandwagon.
   d. Open-mindedness as to policy.
   e. Unbiased search for further facts.
   f. Ability to propose remedial action.
   g. Solicitation of community participation and cooperation in the corrective effort.
5. School public relations should be sensitive to its public.
   a. Obligated to making publics comfortable with facts and interpretation relevant to schools.
   b. Be aware of the presence of ready made, easily stimulated responses to public involved; leadership required.
6. Ideas communicated must be simple.
   a. Use understandable graphic presentation.
   b. Simple touch-appeal to reality.
   c. Verbal symbolism of catchy words such as used in recent housing bill campaign: "You can't argue with the stork."

All of these matters have significance. The difficulty lies in their achievement. They resemble the statements "Honesty is the best policy" and "Truth is stranger than fiction," which, though undeniable, when implemented with no deep understanding may lead into almost naïve if not actually destructive bypaths.[12]

However, if one examines these ideas with sophistication and translates them into interaction based on the premises enunciated in Section A of this text, he may begin not only to face the realities of others but to question some of his own realities. At this point his communication with groups might be influenced by the following insights:

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[12] In the early 1900s a play entitled *Nothing But the Truth* involved a wager that no man could tell the literal truth as he perceived it over a period of time without facing self-destruction. This comedy was an interesting and sophisticated commentary on "Honesty is the best policy." Clearly, one must admit that reality, truth, and "honesty" often exist only "in the eye of the beholder."

1. Considerable interaction needs to be encouraged within the limits of time and necessity for decision.

2. Since the rights of minorities are implicit in the democratic way, minority opinion must be preserved and encouraged.

3. Issues need to be kept open long enough for all opinions to be expressed.

4. Concerted efforts need to be made to integrate various points of view in the solution of any problem.

Reporting to Public and Parents

Practically all districts report to the public and to parents, but when they have done so, they may still have avoided the question of the quality of the interaction. We submit here a fairly obvious and generally accepted list of public relations activities and will expand briefly upon some items.[13]

1. Exhibits at various places of business.
2. Newspaper publicity.
3. Use of radio and television.
4. American Education Week and Public Schools Week activities.
5. Home contacts.
6. School entertainment.
7. Contact with service clubs and taxpayer groups.
8. Contact with the PTA.
9. Reporting to parents and report cards.

Exhibits at Various Places of Business. One of the problems here is that the best is always exhibited, the idea being that the public is entitled to know how good a job the schools are doing. Of course, this is true, but from the point of view of understanding and insight the task of the school is not to achieve perfection or "the best" but to bring about change and maturation. Thus a youngster who enters kindergarten unable to read or write usually is able to do so at the end of his high school career. This is the kind of progress which the public should be shown, for it is through the progress of any individual student or group of students that the public can properly understand and evaluate the role and purpose of the schools.

> *Example 1.* One insightful kindergarten teacher did a window display entitled "How Three Children Grew in Art During Their Kindergarten Year." She exhibited two or three early drawings, two or three end-of-first-semester drawings, and two or three end-of-year drawings in a downtown place of business. The youngsters were carefully selected, one having what seemed to be poor ability in art; another, average ability; still another, high artistic ability. She placed the pictures carefully, with information regarding the time they were drawn and under what circumstances. The display was extremely attractive. Even more important, the degree of progress was startlingly apparent.

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[13] We are indebted to Fred J. Stewart, former principal of the Collis P. Huntington School, for this list, which we have modified.

Example 2. During a high school "open house" an algebra teacher exhibited the progressive difficulty found in algebra. He indicated units used at the beginning, the middle, and the end of the course, as well as papers which illustrated these levels of difficulty. Here again the progress from simple algebraic concepts to more complex ones was easily perceived by those who stopped to examine the exhibit, and it was this progress which was most impressive.

Newspaper Publicity. At present most of the newspaper publicity concerning schools appears in the sport pages and covers the accomplishments of the various athletic teams at the high school level, particularly football teams. Controversial articles which discuss "the failure of the schools" and rebuttals thereto also receive a fair amount of space. A widely circulated newspaper that we studied had 112 articles on public school athletics in one week, 40 articles discussing the failure of the school and possible solutions proposed by people with little or no background in public education, and 10 articles on social events, school elections, etc. Only five articles dealt with positive achievements of students or teachers, and these were quite unusual and outstanding achievements. The latter articles did not emphasize the role of the school, only mentioning its name, and they were usually relegated to the society page, hardly a section to emphasize the importance of the public school.

It is apparent that the public, particularly men, might in this kind of newspaper publicity receive a distorted picture of what the schools are doing and might begin either approving without knowledge or "tilting at windmills." In other words, those who approve of excellent football teams might become "rooters" of the school. Those who see teams as far less important might become suspicious and upset by the "overemphasis" on athletics. Whether or not this is the situation in a given school cannot be discussed here, nor can we do much about the fact that the newspaper is entitled to write the news as it wishes. But it is the administrator's responsibility to organize the news so that even the newspaper becomes aware of the situation and becomes more receptive of the other materials coming from the school.

What would happen if open discussions were encouraged on topics like these? (1) Are schools big business or social agencies? (2) Do we spend more money on cars or on kids? (3) Have we always been suspicious of children who are not bright? (4) Is it possible to impart "wisdom" to 150 kids a day? (5) What are the implications of de facto segregation? (6) Do we admire "academic learnedness" or a "love of learning"?

Utilizing the resources of the community, perhaps a business executive arguing for the school as a business entity and a social worker arguing for the school as a social agency might cause sufficient controversy to interest the newspapers. Yet neither approach would be injurious to the image of the school.

To think through ways of interesting newspapers in a positive approach is worthy of the most creative and imaginative talent of the administrator, for he is helping to organize activities which are exciting, which people will want to attend, which newspapers might find worthy of reporting. It becomes important for him also to open avenues of communication either by assuming the responsibility himself or by delegating it to a member of his staff so that the newspapers are constantly being informed of these matters.

Use of Radio and Television. In the past radio and television have been used primarily in two ways. One practice has been to present course work, sometimes for credit. This has been seen as an extension of school services — often incorporated into the adult education program. The other use of radio and television has been for purposes of presenting, sporadically, interesting programs concerned with various topics or various activities of the schools: panel discussions, debates, speeches, book reports, etc. In general, however, very little has been done with ongoing series of programs which are intended to enlighten the public regarding some of the tasks undertaken by the schools, always suggesting in what ways the schools have succeeded, in what ways they are still evolving, and in what ways they have a long journey to go.

Two stimulating examples follow:

Example 1. The Eight Ages of Man. Two education instructors in order to sophisticate the community concerning the nature of problems of child growth and development carried on a discussion over television on Erikson's *Eight Ages of Man.* Questions were raised by the moderator, who was a high school counselor. A study guide was sent to the listeners, a portion of which read:

TV Series: "The 8 Ages of Man"[14]
The Development of Human Personality
(after Erik Erikson)

STUDY GUIDE

"All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players:
They have their exits and their entrances;
And one man in his time plays many parts,
His acts being seven ages."

Shakespeare
As You Like It
Act 2, Scene 7

Age 1 — *Infancy and Trust*

During this period the infant perceives the world almost entirely through the mother, and the love and devotion of his mother and a little later his father is paramount in his developing a sense of faith in self. The world is consistent, the world is dependable and persons love you. Out of this grows a basic image of self worth. In this age the infant's defenses are non-existent, and it is, therefore, of great significance to exhibit great love and avoid punishment, since he has no way of protecting himself.

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[14] Sacramento State College and the Sacramento Area Mental Health Association collaborated in presenting this program.

Recommended Reading: Montagu, Ashley. ***The Direction of Human Development.*** New York: Harper, 1955.

Example 2. A dramatics teacher, working in a lower socioeconomic environment, wrote a play in which he presented a history of the Negro.[15] A small excerpt follows:

Speaking Chorus: We sing the song of a people,
We sing the song of a people
Who in long ages past
Grew — and built civilizations
And destroyed and built them again.

Narrator 1: We sing of a people who travelled
To many lands in distant parts of the earth,
Building, destroying and re-building.
Leaving their mark, indelible
Upon all the lands
And all the peoples of the earth.

Chorus: We sing the song of a people
And *this* is the song we sing.

The important thing in connection with radio and television is for the administrator to encourage what we call the "integrative," as well as creative aspects of such communication. In other words, through these media the school can present to the public not only the traditional subjects taught, not only the skills each student must obtain in order to be a contributing citizen, but also some of the enriching experiences which the school offers both students and the public. It is these that fit into the premise enunciated at the very beginning of this text — that the school enhances the nature of the society.

American Education Week, Public Schools Week, and Similar Programs. Here again several errors have been made, at least one of which has already been mentioned — the presentation of only outstanding work. It is precisely during the visitations likely to take place during special "weeks" that the school should show through displays and processes the improvement that most children have shown over the school year. We may have labored too long under the impression that parents look for some kind of ideal image for their child. This is sometimes the case with the middle class, as it is with some teachers.[16] But probably most parents and teachers are more deeply concerned with the progress and improvement of each child.[17]

It would, therefore, be just as desirable in some ways to offer the public the rehearsal of a glee club as well as its performance later. The poorest papers of students might be shown as well as the better ones as they proceed through the semester. The beginnings of scientific study as well as the later more complicated experimentation might be displayed. The same thing could be done for progress made in homemaking and in the trade and industrial classes. When parents and visitors begin to see this kind of advance, they can appreciate the role of the school with greater realism than before. They can understand that the school is not supposed to turn out a "completed" person but rather, as indicated by graduation ceremonies, one who has made a successful "commencement" toward taking his place in society. As they begin to realize more consciously that the school's basic job is to help students to progress toward maturity, they will be more inclined to support the program of the school.

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[15] Benjamin M. Sachs, unpublished radio drama, "A History of the Negro."

[16] W. F. Anderson, "Attitudes of Parents of Differing Socioeconomic Status Toward the Teaching Profession," *Journal of Educational Psychology* (1954), pp. 45, 345–352.

[17] R. Callis, "Change in Teacher-Pupil Attitude Related to Training and Experience," *Educational Psychology Measurement* (1950), pp. 10, 718–727.

Taxpayers' Groups, Business Organizations, and Service Clubs. In presenting the school program to taxpayers' groups, the issues have often been confused rather than clarified, chiefly, we suspect, because of the basic identification of school people with taxpayers' groups and service clubs. Actually, there is nothing wrong with identifying with these groups. What is in error, however, is the acceptance by school administrators that these groups should interpret the cost as well as the goals of the schools without any reference to the professional understandings, findings, and diagnostic abilities of people whose entire lives have been devoted to the study of education. It is as if a school superintendent handling a $10,000,000 budget felt qualified, because of the money involved, to handle the business of a corporation capitalized for the same amount. While there are overlappings in all professional disciplines – in terms of personnel, morale, etc. – there are also fundamental differences. An expert in one field may be naïve in another.

As an example, if we examine the cost of education, we are struck by the fact that most things in the society having less permanent value than an investment in education cost far more. In the middle 1950s the consumer's dollar was spent in approximately the following proportions:[18]

27 cents was spent for food and nonalcoholic beverages
25 cents was spent for housing: rent, maintenance, utilities, etc.
12 cents was spent for clothes and personal grooming
11½ was spent on transportation and automobile maintenance
5½ cents was spent for recreation
5 cents was spent for medical care
5 cents was spent on personal business
4 cents was spent on alcoholic beverages
2½ cents was spent on tobacco
2½ cents was spent in support of public education
1½ cents was spent on religious and welfare activities
1 cent was spent on private education and research

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[18] Gordon C. Lee, *Education in Modern America* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1957), pp. 27–28.

Another way of judging the cost to the taxpayer would be to analyze the return on the investment. This, of course, is a difficult although not impossible task, and one study does indicate what returns come to the society. After World War II and the Korean conflict, 74 per cent of the veterans' benefits, amounting to $10.4 billion, was spent on education,[19] and 7,017,000 veterans profited from this expenditure.[20] Yet the GI bill was not considered an expense but an investment because of the increased earning power and taxable income of most of the GI's trained under its provisions.[21]

Such material is significant to taxpayers' associations and service clubs. It affords them insight into the cost of education and, even more important, enables them to think and to vote more intelligently on school finance issues. In his relationships with such groups the administrator must not only make these matters clear but dramatize them successfully. The well-worn defensive approach to school finance which seems to suggest that this or that will cost the taxpayer "only twenty-two cents on so many dollars" is too apologetic and entirely unwarranted.

Industry is able to suggest how significant breakfast food is to the health of the nation – and strangely enough how desirable and feminine as well as masculine it is to smoke cigarettes. Perhaps, it is time the school administrator began to advertise how vital public education is to the society, how great an investment it is in the future, not only ethically, but financially as well.

Another function of the administrator when he appears before business groups is to indicate the differences between the operation of a business and the operation of a school. For one thing, the emphasis in school is on people and service rather than products and profits.[22] For another, there are difficulties in measuring results; i.e., it is easier to measure the quality of a product than the contribution of a student. The difficulties also involve the fact that much learning is subliminal and not subject to measurement by our present instruments. Thus we may be able to measure reading successfully, but how can a commitment to democracy or to truth or to a love of learning be measured? The educator ought to point out, too, that leadership does have a high positive correlation with education, and that where there is a degree of personalization of learning there is also greater success for the learner.

In any case, in such contacts he must be aware that he is speaking about a complex profession which needs enhancement. With this in mind, his topics might include some of the following for service clubs:

1. The Teacher as a Professional Person.
2. The Administrator as a Teacher of Teachers.

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[19] *Ibid.*, p. 333.

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 342.

[21] *Ibid.*, p. 165.

[22] It can be argued that business administration's approach to personnel management is rapidly becoming more and more "person" oriented and that business, too, is becoming more service minded. See Hepner, *op. cit.*

3. Every Child Is Exceptional.
4. A Love of Subject Versus a Love of Learning.
5. Are Teachers Paid Professional Salaries?
6. Education as an Investment in the Future.
7. Discipline as a Commitment to the People.
8. The Evolution of the American System of Education.
9. The Search for Wisdom.

It is, we feel, far better to handle the above topics and others like them in an ongoing fashion than to become interested in civic groups only when their support is needed for building programs, bond issues, or tax increases; or, on the other hand, to speak to them on superficial topics with which they are already all too familiar.

A Program for the Parent-Teacher Association. Among education's strongest supporting groups have been the Parent-Teacher Association and other interested citizens' committees — sometimes rather euphemistically called lay advisory committees. In many instances leadership with regard to these dedicated groups has been woefully lacking.

> *Example 1.* In a study mentioned previously 14 administrators, when speaking to and with their faculties, interacted with them between 70 and 95 per cent of the time (perhaps too frequently). On the other hand, when attending PTA functions these same men were quite passive and spoke no more than 51 per cent of the time, with most only "speaking when spoken to."
>
> *Example 2.* A school principal interacting enthusiastically with his PTA was congratulated by a number of the members. However, one rather irate woman called the superintendent to tell him that she felt the principal was dominating the PTA which was, after all, an "independent group." The superintendent advised the principal to take it easy and not make his feelings known to the group.

Perhaps it is fear of parents and patrons of the schools that lead administrators to take a passive role and to permit the PTA to confine itself to such programs as style shows, purchasing Christmas baskets, faculty teas, fund-raising campaigns, etc. There is nothing really wrong with this kind of endeavor except that it seems quite shallow and hardly worth the time and effort of people busy either in earning a living or in raising a family.

There are many more important things to be done that a skillful school administrator could suggest to lay groups and parents. Here are a few of them:

1. A series of discussions on normal growth and development of children and youth.
2. Discussion of the universal needs of all parents.
3. Discussion of the meaning of interracial understanding.
4. Possible parent services to teachers.
5. Cooperation between the parent, the teacher, and the administrator.
6. Study of the parent as the majority stockholder in the development of the child.

Where study groups are stimulated and sincerely try to find out the advantages and disadvantages of any given program, startling results are sometimes obtained.

Example 3. The parents of 20 children who had been informed that their children were in the upper 3 per cent on an intelligence scale decided that they wanted a program for the gifted which would be completely isolated from that of the other children. They argued that their children were being held back, needed to go to college at an earlier age, etc. The principal of the junior high school where this incident occurred was uncertain about the solution, but he was uneasy with it, so all agreed to study all kinds of programs and the results that followed their use for one semester. At the conclusion of the study the vote was: 19 families to 1 against segregation, but for some emphasis on certain days of the week on special opportunities for these children. What was even more interesting was the fact that this group voted solidly – all 20 of them – for smaller classes, regardless of classification, in order that all children could receive the individual instruction to which they were entitled.

Example 4. An excited parent called an elementary consultant who was not employed in the district about which she was complaining.

"My son," she said, "was transferred about a month ago from a teacher he liked to one he dislikes. From earning A's and B's, he is now getting B's and C's. How can I get him out of the class?"

The elementary supervisor explained how she might go about it. She could state her objections to the principal, and probably, if she was adamant (since she was the parent), her son would eventually be transferred to his original teacher. The mother was very happy to know her legal rights, thanked the consultant profusely, and was about to hang up.

"Just a moment before you hang up," said the consultant. "What grade is he in?"

"He is in the fourth grade," she replied.

"Well, before you embark on getting him transferred out, you need to consider some other factors. Although I do not know your son or you, I do know that his B's and C's in the fourth grade have little meaning toward establishing his future success in high school and college. However, your showing him how he can get around authority and how you are willing to protect – and overprotect – him may present him with some secondary cues that have far more serious meanings for high school and college than we can presently predict. The choice is, nevertheless, up to you."

There was a long silence at the other end of the line.

"My husband said something like that," said the woman lamely. "I guess we'd better think about it for a while." Then she hung up.

Perhaps the most important aspect, then, of working with parent-teacher groups is to determine what is truth as nearly as one can understand truth. This, of course, we have attempted to discuss from various points of view throughout the text. Having come as close to reality as possible through research, diagnosis, and contemplation, the administrator will interact with the PTA and lay committees in as honest a fashion as he can. This course may not always be the expedient one, and perhaps some examples should be given of administrators who have lost their positions as a result of taking it. Nevertheless, it is the only professional one to follow. Under these circumstances, it becomes the responsibility of each of us in the profession to assist the person who performs in this way regardless of the dangers he encounters. When an administrator is deprived of his role because of such an attempt, it is our further responsibility to see to it that he continues to function within the profession in places where such efforts are appreciated.

One of our students in an unpublished report in a field study[23] included the following information:

> A recent dissertation written at the University of Pittsburgh dealt with a survey of evaluative criteria most used by school administrators in measuring the effectiveness of the public relations program. (Dale Baughman, "Yardstick for Measuring School-Community Relations," *Educational Administration*, 43:19-22, January 1957.)

Per Cent of Respondents Utilizing Various Criteria
For Appraising the Public Relations Program
and Rank of Each Criterion

CRITERIA	RANK	PER CENT RESPONSES
Morale of pupils	1	97.6
Morale of faculty	2	90.5
Lay persons visiting school	3	81.0
Citizen use of school facilities	4	74.0
Number and intensity of discipline problems	5	71.4
Level of academic achievement by students	6	70.4
Number of dropouts	7	69.0
Level of social achievement of students	8	64.0
Interest in adult education	9	57.1
Lay participation in policy and evaluation	10	21.4
Public opinion polls	11	9.5

Space does not permit further discussion. But it is our belief that the above table represents quite accurately the kinds of communication to which the administrator is committed. His purpose is idealistic and admirable. His problem is to develop the social perceptions and skills that enable him to carry it out more successfully.

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[23] M. Boyd Martindale, "Public Relations, an Approach to School-Community Understanding."

19

The Administrator and Personnel

In the overview attempted in this text it is not possible to treat all aspects of the problems inherent in personnel administration. As a matter of fact, many institutions devote an entire course to personnel administration alone. There are a number of textbooks on the topic as well.[1] Personnel, of course, means not only the professional staff but the clerical and custodial staff also. Actually, it includes all people who, in one way or another, serve the school district: bus drivers, dietitians, nurses, doctors, contractors, and many others. Therefore, personnel administration is a difficult and complex task – possibly the most difficult one that the administrator faces. It may also represent his highest level of professional achievement, for as he is able to engage, to inspire, and to keep creative and insightful persons in the school framework, he himself is functioning creatively and is more than earning whatever salary and prestige are attendant on the role of principal, supervisor, or superintendent.

In this text, however, we will delimit personnel functions to those areas which we feel are of greatest significance in the administrator's role as a personnel worker. Certain principles will emerge which will be applicable with modification to almost all other areas of personnel administration. Wherever possible such parallels will be drawn and examples given to illustrate the basic topics covered.

In keeping with the nature of the text, we plan to focus on those personnel practices which are associated with some of the premises and insights discussed in Part One. While other areas in personnel administration have similar implications, we have selected the following as pointing up how both principles and insights function in operation: (1) the reality principle in personnel administration, (2) teacher selection, (3) teacher orientation, (4) in-service education, and (5) teacher evaluation.

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[1] H. E. Moore and N. B. Walters, *Personnel Administration in Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955); Jefferson N. Eastmond, *The Teacher and School Administration* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1959); William B. Castetter, *Administering the School Personnel Program* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1962).

It should be recognized at the outset that the administrator has responsibilities in many other areas. But we shall not discuss (1) professional associations, (2) tenure, (3) load, (4) fringe benefits (retirement, sick leave, etc.), (5) supervision, or (6) non-certificated personnel and others. Of course, these are personnel matters of considerable significance. However, the areas we do discuss will suggest, perhaps, how both principles and insights become "practical" as well as applicable to all areas.

The Reality Principle in Personnel Administration

In order to be able to practice his profession with a high degree of understanding, the administrator needs to develop what we have called elsewhere a "reality principle" (see Part One). This is particularly significant as he works with people. Perception of reality often finds its greatest challenge in personnel administration. Errors in, for example, teacher selection or teacher evaluation may cause extremely anxiety-provoking conditions for the teachers involved, the profession, and the administrator himself. Let us, therefore, begin by examining some situations embracing selection and evaluation in which the reality principle should operate for purposes of illustrating this concept.

Attitude Toward Error. One of the first tasks the administrator needs to undertake is the development of his ability to select personnel. It is obvious that no one can select personnel perfectly; every administrator is subject to human error and will make some mistakes. However, insofar as possible he should acquire the understandings and techniques that will minimize anxiety due to human error.

> An assistant superintendent in charge of personnel was called by the president of the board, who said, "Two of the teachers you hired are not doing very well. What's wrong with your practices?"
>
> The assistant superintendent replied, "Mr.———, we hired 25 new teachers last year, and missed with two. Twenty-three of them are functioning very well. Now if I could hire 25 outstanding teachers out of 25 every time, I could become a consultant to any district because I never would make an error and would save everyone much grief. However, it seems to me that 23 out of 25 is not a bad percentage."
>
> During this statement the board member's attitude changed from hostility to understanding. He laughed and said, "Are you working with the two?"
>
> "We are," replied the administrator. "We may succeed, or we may have to release them. In any case, we will know soon enough."
>
> One of the two teachers responded to supervision, and the other had to be released.

The administrator was aware of his own limitations and was not afraid to explain them to the board member. It is this principle that is reality oriented and of considerable importance. And it has to be kept in mind in all practices which involve people. By and large, administrators without too much training in either interviewing or selection have done a very creditable job in obtaining good teachers. A small percentage of teachers are unsuccessful, and this despite the fact that no specific criteria for success other than fairly superficial ones with a low positive correlation have ever been established.

Danger of Eliminating Gifted Teachers. However, it may be that not only the poorest teachers but also the most creative are eliminated. On a curve of distribution, the lowest 2 or 3 per cent might be most undesirable because of their rigidity and the impoverished nature of their empathy with students, parents, and peers. But at the other end of the curve there might be 2 or 3 per cent of the teachers who were so sensitive and empathic that they would foster behavior and curricula that are quite different from what is normally expected. In the attempt to obtain teachers with "balanced" personalities it is unfortunate that, for reasons based on their non-conforming behavior, the most creative teachers may be excluded. There is a major distinction between the two extreme forms of behavior.

Case 1. Behavior of a Poor Teacher as Described by an Administrator

Mrs. ——— informed me that some of her boys had been playing around the windows of her classroom. Friday two boys returned to help her after school. Being helpful was not typical of one of these boys. She said that Mike B. was always planning or "cooking up" something sly. After he left, Mrs. ——— noticed that one of the windows had been left open. She found bits of glass below the window and remembered that the boys had been passing around a key that would "just fit between" the louvers. By Saturday, Mrs. ——— felt that the above information meant that the boys might break into the classroom. She realized that I was teaching on Saturday morning so she called two parents and the County Sheriff's Office. The County Sheriff's Office sent out a deputy to talk to Mrs. ———. They said they could do nothing unless a crime had been committed, but they would try to send a cruiser by the school.

I talked to nine boys who had been listed by Mrs. ——— as in on the plan. Later, I talked with Mrs. ——— and informed her that I did not feel that she was justified in phoning parents or the police. She felt that parents would "want to know" such information. I did not agree and felt that parents could have been justifiably irate. She implied that from now on she would stand by and let the school be vandalized.

Case 2. Behavior of a Creative Teacher as Described by a Peer

Mr. ——— was almost always late to class and almost always his students remained after class to talk to him and to argue with him. Although he was teaching American history, he thought nothing of discussing such controversial topics as Communism, Russia, war and peace. He actually encouraged youngsters to disagree with him, and they did so with considerable pleasure.

Mr. ——— was almost always surrounded by students. My son who took his course said that it was the most exciting course he had ever taken. I noticed that he was studying more history and related materials than he had ever done before. Yet Mr. ——— was dismissed at the end of his second year. Why?

Well, he was tardy to class. His students often came tardy to other classes, too. He was late with his reports, and he wasn't the most tidy person either. I guess all these things showed a lack of consideration for others. The principal told him about these things. He tried to work with him. I guess Mr. ——— was too much of an individualist.

It was too bad though. I never saw my son so enthusiastic about school. I haven't since.

Both of these teachers exhibited somewhat erratic behavior and are quite different from the usual instructor. Each is temperamental; each seems to set up rules of his own, to be somewhat indifferent to authority, and to resist supervision. But there is a difference in the quality of their perceptions. The similarities of eccentricity are due to the fact that each is at one or the other end of a curve of distribution, just as are the mentally retarded and the gifted. But the underlying purpose of the behavior of the first teacher is punitive and ego-destructive whereas the second stimulates much interaction leading to one of the essential goals of education: the establishment of a love of learning. Both of these teachers were denied tenure and were discharged. The question remains: Can the poorest eccentric teacher be eliminated while the eccentricity of the most creative teacher is accepted, even if the reason for his behavior is not understood?

It is the investigation of such reality principles – the human limitations of the administrator himself, the possibility that he has not sufficient insight or training to screen or evaluate as adequately as he would like to, the possibility that he would not be able to perceive some gifted teachers – that can lead to more insightful personnel practices.

Teacher Selection

The Interview. The commonest way to select teachers is by interview. We have discussed various purposes of the interview in Chapter 9. In selection, the interview is used as a diagnostic tool as we have defined it in Chapter 8: to obtain information regarding the experience, insight, understanding, and perceptions of the candidate. However, since practically all of his background material (his experience and much of what other people have observed about him) is available in his confidential file, the interviewer is really seeking to understand the degree of insight and the kinds of perception the candidate has. Consequently the interviewer should raise a number of questions which involve considerable ambiguity.

In the past, teachers have reported that the administrator did most of the talking in the interview, explaining the policies of the district, duties of the position, and working conditions. Thus there was small opportunity to check subtle areas of perception and insight. Yet the profession has been remarkably fortunate in selection, for on the whole teachers have been quite adequate in the roles assigned to them — perhaps in spite of, not because of, the interviews!

What kinds of questions should be raised in the interview, then? Certainly the most important thing to find out is whether the candidate emphasizes *people over things*, is able *to tolerate ambiguity*, and can consistently refrain from arriving at *prescriptive inferences with insufficient diagnostic information.*

> One interviewer says to a prospective candidate, "You have a youngster in the third grade (or a young man in the eleventh grade) who is consistently interrupting the class. What do you do about it?" In his judgment the applicant who has a "pat" answer such as, "Send him to the principal" (or "Send him to the dean of boys") receives the lowest "grade" on the interview. A person who is puzzled and attempts several alternative solutions does better in the interview. However, the individual who replies categorically, "I do not know, because I don't know the boy," or "I do not have enough information" receives the highest "grade" on the interview according to this particular interviewer.

The rationale for the way this interview was conducted is that it enhances the basic premises of a profession and indicates the degree to which the individual being interviewed accepts his commitment to professionalism.

On the other hand, an interview which included giving the candidate sufficient data for him to show his diagnostic ability and make a realistic prescriptive inference is perfectly feasible if the interviewer is willing to prepare beforehand enough materials (a case study, a tape recording, or a partial analysis of the case) to enable the applicant to arrive at some form of diagnosis that would reveal his insight and sophistication.

> An administrator in charge of personnel has a short typewritten statement in which the family situation of a disturbed child is described. The father, a Spanish-American, is also quite disturbed; and the mother, who is of English extraction, is quite beside herself in trying to understand the situation. The wife's mother leaves her own husband for long periods of time and lives with them because, as she says, her daughter's husband is a "good Mexican."
>
> At this point, having presented the case, the interviewer asks the candidate to analyze the situation. To the extent that the candidate sees the grandmother as a woman who is defeating both her daughter and her daughter's husband, and thus the youngster at school, the candidate is judged quite insightful by the interviewer. Also, to the extent that the candidate is able to perceive that the husband, if he accepts the "compliment" of being a "good Mexican," destroys himself as well as his nationality and that, therefore, he must learn to reject this kind of praise even when he is tempted to accept it, the candidate is also seen as highly empathic.

This kind of sensitivity, the ability to cope with the ambiguities in life, distinguishes a "thing-oriented" (or, to use the Maslow term, "need deficiency"-oriented) individual from a "person-oriented" and empathic individual, one moving toward greater autonomy and maturity. It is this that the administrator must seek out as he interviews the candidate.

It is important to involve two or three other administrators in the interview process. Certainly, the principal who is to supervise the new teacher should participate. But here we face another "pseudo-reality" in that we have maintained that various points of view should be represented on the administrative team for selection purposes. This we reaffirm for the interpretation or prescriptive level, but it is our feeling that it should not hold for the diagnostic or empathic level. In other words, if the purpose of selection is to find teachers who are person- rather than thing-oriented, who are sensitive rather than insensitive, who are empathic rather than non-empathic, then it is well for members of the interviewing team to agree upon these premises beforehand even though they may disagree on the methods by which the premises are perceived or implemented. Their basic values should be more alike than different.

Observing the Teacher in Action. Possibly the best way to evaluate the effectiveness of a teacher is to observe his teaching. It follows that the best way to select a teacher is to view his work in the classroom: a beginning teacher, in practice teaching; an experienced teacher who might wish to change districts, in his regular position. A teacher who is not teaching at present could be asked to substitute for a day as a way of ascertaining his skills in the classroom.[2]

The problem is not difficult to solve. It entails, however, a willingness on the part of boards of trustees to allow the administrators charged with selection enough time and a certain amount of money for this purpose.

> One board set aside $1,000 as traveling expenses for its superintendent, assistant superintendent, and those principals they wished to involve, so that they might observe teachers under consideration for employment.
>
> An older employed teacher made a strong impression on the group, but it was felt that her employment might be questioned by the board since she was in her mid-50s. The assistant superintendent and two principals traveled some 100 miles to watch her teach. They were not only greatly impressed with her skill in teaching, but also with the fact that her principal pleaded that they not "take her away from the school." In his judgment she was one of the "youngest" teachers he had. The anticipated question was raised by the board, but the evidence satisfied them, and the teacher was employed.

According to the responses of some 300 graduate students, nine out of ten teachers would have preferred this kind of evaluation to the interview.[3]

This method is in keeping with the ideal that a professional person ought to be judged primarily in terms of his practice rather than on other criteria. Because of the greater effectiveness of selection and the more professional approach and because it is seen as a desirable way of selection by both teachers and administrators, it needs further implementation and should be encouraged. Strangely enough, boards of education will spend money to send administrators long distances to conduct interviews, but generally have not done the same for the purpose of enabling them to observe the effectiveness of the teacher as he performs professionally.

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[2] When an individual is substituting for another teacher, the observer should be aware of the other teacher's having set the classroom climate. So if the teacher he is replacing is highly skilled and insightful, it becomes a mark of professional achievement to maintain this level. On the other hand, if the teacher for whom he is substituting cannot maintain these standards, then any improvement the candidate makes is also a sign of professional skill. In other words, observation does not involve inflexible judgment. It involves the ability to see the candidate establishing a professional role as a teacher for himself under the conditions in which both he and the class find themselves.

[3] Benjamin M. Sachs, unpublished opinionnaire, "By What Method Would You Prefer to Be Employed?"

Teacher Orientation

Unless we have an organized plan of induction, the problems of the new teacher can easily be overlooked or remain undiscovered during the critical period when habits and attitudes (which will largely determine his professional failure or success) are being formed."[4]

Much has been written about planned induction of teachers new to teaching and new to the district.[5]

> An N.E.A. publication states that as a result of asking 100 teachers, midway through the first year of teaching, what the areas were in which they requested help most frequently the following replies were received:[6]
>
> 1. How to establish warm, satisfying human relationships.
> 2. How to discharge professional responsibilities.
> 3. How to work better with children and youth.
> 4. How to utilize school and community resources better to meet professional responsibilities.
> 5. How to use records and carry on teacher-child-parent evaluation.
> 6. How to organize and develop the instructional program.

We have had a number of our administration students do graduate studies on orientation. One of the most recent studies seems to substantiate most of the results mentioned above. It suggests that there is considerable and adequate emphasis upon the mechanical details and so teachers feel secure with these. In response to questions such as "Did you understand how to make out report cards and deficiency notices?" and "Do you feel your questions regarding school procedures were adequately answered?" the vast majority of new teachers in the cosmopolitan high school studied answered, "Yes."[7] To questions like "Did you feel your instructions regarding student behavior were adequate?" the majority answered, "No"; when asked to make suggestions, the following were among the more significant ones submitted:

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[4] Metropolitan School Study Council, *The Newly Appointed Teacher* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950), p. 1.

[5] See texts on administration – orientation and induction – by Leo J. Brueckner, Clarence A. Weber, and William A. Yeager. The National Education Association and Teachers College at Columbia University have also done extensive research on the subject.

[6] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Helping the New Teacher* (Washington: National Education Association, 1956), p. 4.

[7] Esther B. Graves, unpublished field study.

1. I think a social meeting would be next in order to become acquainted with the entire faculty.
2. The before and after school meetings are very informative but should come early in the first semester.
3. A firmer policy regarding tardiness.
4. I think we are required to do more record keeping than is necessary.
5. Fewer meetings with more important topics.
6. Five meetings prior to the opening date seemed a waste of time; I could have spent the hours much more profitably in my own classroom-organizing and becoming familiar with materials and our own school plant.
7. There were too many meetings that were simply a huge waste of time (during the first semester). These could have been cut down to two or three meetings that were to the point and not simply a dull repetition of previously read or delivered information.

One interesting comment seems to arise whenever teachers are asked to suggest improvements: teachers' meetings are often seen as a "waste of time." We will discuss below some of the possible reasons for this. It is sufficient to say here that it is a recurrent complaint, particularly with some length of service and where such comments are turned in anonymously. For our purposes in discussing orientation, note that remarks listed above are basically behaviorally oriented, that some of them are positively valenced ("I think a social meeting would be in order to become acquainted with the entire faculty") and some negatively valenced ("A firmer policy regarding tardiness"). Of much significance is the fact that, of the seven comments, five are negatively oriented and only two fall into the positive area. A psychological factor may be operating here: that people who have something to complain about usually state their complaints, and those who do not say nothing. However, it does not make for much security or adequate research to receive data which are oriented only in a negative direction.

Meeting Behavioral Needs. What we can say, then, about orientation is that the needs of the new teacher, whether they are satisfied and not mentioned, or whether they are not satisfied and mentioned, are rooted in behavioral premises, not in technical premises. They are needs which pose these questions in regard to professional behavior: (1) How can I do my job most adequately? (2) What is expected of me? (3) When are these things expected of me? (4) Why are these things expected of me? (5) What will help me become a more professional person in this environment? (6) How can I derive greater pleasure from my profession?

Egocentric as these questions may appear to be, they are the beginnings of awareness and self-evaluation and should be encouraged and organized so as to become operationally more adequate. Instead, at present complete answers to them are likely to be sought; an attempt is made either to satisfy that which should not be satisfied entirely or to suppress the doubts an individual may have about his role – doubts which should not be suppressed but which should continue to help him examine his professional services critically and so to become more adequate as a practitioner. One writer lists 45 objectives, all desirable but hardly attainable. A more sensible list of goals follows:

1. Some assistance with such personal problems as obtaining suitable living quarters and making social contacts within the community.
2. An introduction to the social, spiritual, and cultural resources of the community.
3. An understanding of the policies and procedures of the school system and of the school to which he is assigned.
4. Adequate knowledge of his special assignment and special duties.
5. Acquaintance with the instructional materials and facilities with which he will be working.
6. Knowledge of his rights and responsibilities as a teacher within the school system; opportunities for professional advancement; requirements for advanced status on salary schedule, tenure and pension rights, etc.

Teacher-Sponsors. Another possible method of achieving new-teacher orientation that could accommodate the needs of teachers along behavioral lines is one that has probably been used by most newcomers to a district — the advice and counsel of "the interested teacher next door." It appears obvious to us, and certainly we feel that research would bear out the fact, that new teachers have almost universally used a teacher who seemed interested in them and who had had experience in the district as a resource person.

With careful consideration the administration can appoint or encourage a "teacher-sponsor" for each of the new teachers. For one thing, this program is already informally in effect. For another, a new teacher may feel more comfortable seeking advice and information from a peer than from a supervisor, head of a department, or principal; he is less likely to fear that his lack of knowledge might be used judgmentally. While the latter feeling may be unfounded, the new teacher is often rather defensively trained and thus his orientation is hampered. Also, face-to-face communication with a teacher who is nearby disposes of the often heard complaint that although the administrator is willing to be of service there are so many demands on his time that it is impossible to see him at the crucial moment. Several school districts have had a considerable degree of success with a teacher-sponsor program.[8]

Use of the teacher-sponsor might also help the new teacher become oriented to the school and the school system and some of the professional tasks in the district. In Bretsch's words,

> . . . Sometimes it is thought that the new teacher should not be burdened with what I shall call institutional service activities, including such things as committees, school problem groups, and so forth. Many times, if new teachers are assigned to such committees, there is a tendency for the veteran teacher to first regard this new teacher as being inexperienced and also, not possible of making very much of a contribution until the teacher has become thoroughly oriented. I

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[8] E.g., San Rafael (Calif.) City Schools, 1953–55.

> suggest that probably one of the best ways for a teacher to become oriented is to, within reason and sound judgment, become vitally involved in committee deliberations which are going to make a difference in the school system. The social orientation which takes place at teas and like activities are but one dimension of orientation and, as far as I'm concerned, of less importance than for the teacher to engage in intellectual confrontation and discussion with his peers. Putting it very bluntly, I think the teacher who is inducted into the system through its work and committee structure begins to realize the conflicts and tensions which may exist and, as such, get considerable insight into the points of view and personalities of his peers as well as the philosophy and goals of the school system.[9]

If the administrator combines Bretsch's notion with that of utilizing an older teacher who will help the new teacher move into these situations, he may establish an exciting and possibly optimal kind of orientation.

In-Service Education

The "Traditional" Faculty Meeting. One of the most universal forms of in-service work in education is the faculty meeting. It probably goes without saying that the first-year teacher approaches his first faculty meeting with enthusiasm. He has had a long apprenticeship and has at last been admitted into the ranks of the profession. In checking with teachers over the past seven years who are in training for supervision or administration, we found that most of them felt this way about faculty meetings early in their careers. However, after a time disillusionment began and it increased with experience. What happened?

Certainly the quality of the faculty meeting needs careful examination. Very often it is a mechanistic rehash of material that has already appeared in the school bulletin. Not uncommonly the administrator begins a meeting by reading the bulletin that was issued that day or several days before – an approach which often leads teachers to give up their own reading of the bulletin. Not only are the details mechanistic, but they are not weighted according to their importance. Thus a discussion concerning the collection of milk money may take as much time as a discussion of curriculum or teacher evaluation. Inevitably, the meeting loses most of its significance or stimulation.

Since teachers are an intelligent group, they quickly discover the shallowness of such interaction and become hostile toward the faculty meeting. Moreover, since decisions may have already been made by the administrator before the meeting and teachers are not expected to suggest different solutions and alternatives, but rather to acquiesce, a feeling of being manipulated only adds to their frustration and to their belief that the meeting is not accomplishing very much.

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[9] Howard Bretsch, "Critical Analysis of *Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach*.

Let us quote from a tape in which several students role-play in somewhat exaggerated form a meeting of approximately 30 teachers in an urban junior high school.

> Principal J———: "The meeting will come to order. We are starting five minutes late because four of you did not get here on time. Now I realize that we are all busy people, but we don't have many faculty meetings — only four a year — and it seems to me if we are five minutes late in starting, we will have to run five minutes over our scheduled dismissal time of four o'clock. I don't want to mention the names of the tardy people because I don't want to embarrass them. So let's get on with the business of the meeting.
>
> "Report cards are coming out this week, and I have asked our vice-principal, Mr. A———, to explain how they are to be filled out."
>
> (Here Mr. A——— proceeds to explain to all present, only five of whom are newcomers, how to fill out report cards including such items as "The teacher must sign his name in ink," "The name of the school can be filled in by obtaining the stamp from the office," etc. At the conclusion of these remarks the principal takes over.) Principal J———: "What vice-principal A——— has just said was . . ." (and the principal proceeds then to repeat everything that was said by the previous speaker, apparently as a form of reinforcement. Having finished this repetition, he continues . . .)
>
> "Now as we mentioned in the bulletin, we are going to deal with tardiness in the following manner . . ." (and this is explained in much detail).
>
> "Furthermore, as all of us know, discipline is an important aspect of our school. We run a taut ship. And to do this we must do the following as has been outlined in our teachers' manual . . ." (and this, too, is explained by reading parts of the manual to the group).
>
> "Now it is just five after four. As you know, I do not believe in having our meetings last too long. You probably also are aware that our basketball team is playing A——— Junior High School this afternoon, and the game is probably starting now. I would appreciate your going down and cheering our team to victory. Thank you very much for coming."[10]

The above is an exaggeration for dramatic purposes, but there are enough elements of truth in it to cause some concern to administrators and to teachers of administration. Administrators often overorganize their meetings, are punitive in their approach sometimes, and tend to repeat what has already been said. In spite of the fact that only the new teachers needed the information concerning the report cards, the other teachers had to listen to the explanation twice. In this particular tape a few attempts are made by those role-playing the teachers to comment, but they are brushed aside in "the interests of saving time," despite the statement on the cover of the California Teachers Association bulletin on "Professional Staff Relations": "Let Every Man Have His Say — Even if He Doesn't Have His Way."

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[10] From a role-playing tape made by John H. King, counselor, Kit Carson Junior High School, Sacramento, Calif.

Newer ideas suggest that there is basically a peer relationship among all school personnel — that while the administrator's assignments may differ in detail from the assignments of teachers, both the administrator and the teacher have more in common than they have differences, and they need to communicate on the basis of these similarities. A communiqué from a state teachers association indicates one important "image" to be encouraged: "All school personnel form an inter-dependent team, and classroom teachers represent the same educational level and value as others in the education profession."[11]

Alternative Kinds of Meetings. Perhaps one solution would be to encourage meetings of faculty members. Such meetings take place anyway but are usually incidental. The administrator might help put interaction of this kind on a more planned basis. Care must be taken, however, that the group never become dominated by or subservient to administration even though the discussion embraces all persons who are involved in the educational function, including administrators. Topics such as these might be discussed:

1. How can one enhance the dignity of the individual teacher?
2. What about the dignity of the pupil?
3. How can one advance the dignity of the profession?
4. How may we enrich the curriculum?
5. How can we communicate our role as a professional person to the public?
6. How can we integrate the profession from kindergarten to the university?
7. Methods of professional evaluation.

These topics should arouse much ambiguity and much give-and-take. They may call for small-group interaction, and so a faculty may divide into three or four or more groups to consider these problems and report to the faculty as a whole. They are not easy to solve nor should they be; as indicated in the chapter on the characteristics of a profession, the quest for their solution is never ending. But this is the nature of the profession. The administrator must be able to tolerate such a developmental pattern instead of seeking pat answers which seemingly present a solution but in reality satisfy no one for any length of time.

The administrator may wish to establish a Professional Relations Committee or any other committee designated to "steer" the program. (For one such organization refer to Figures 17 and 18.) In this case he must be willing to share responsibility with members of his professional staff in as empathic a fashion as possible and to release authority to them. This means, of course, that he needs to be secure in his commitment to the profession and to the professional status of his staff, secure in the belief that the combined judgment of all of the professional people with whom he is associated will be advantageous

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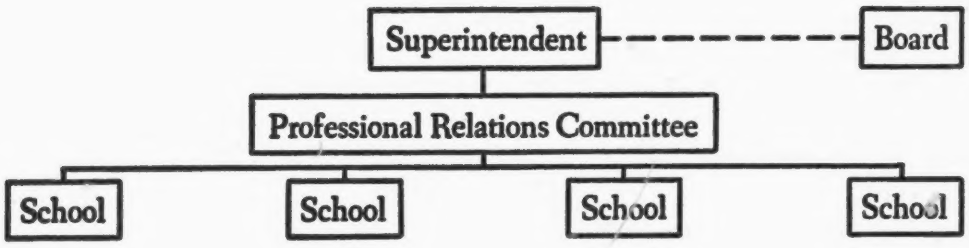
[11] "Images of a Professional," unpublished summary of reports of consulting groups on professional objectives, California Teachers Association, Public Relations Department, Research Department, 1960, p. 6.

Figure 17

PROFESSIONAL RELATIONS COMMITTEE:
THE CENTRAL OFFICE



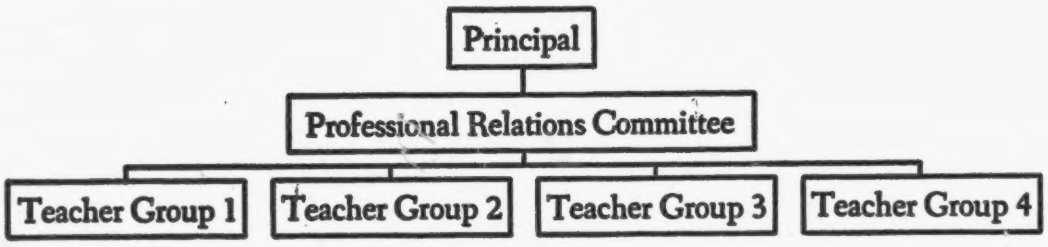
From unpublished report of the Professional Relations Committee of the Belmont Faculty Association, Belmont, California.

to the institution, the students, the society, the profession, and himself. Without this belief, the delegation of authority carries a subconscious or unconscious insincerity which will eventually become apparent even though it may be only subliminally perceived. The staff will then be further distressed and the advancement of the profession hindered.

The first principle involved is that of decentralization, which suggests that each group can function on its own and arrive at sincere and insightful conclusions even in the absence of the administrator or his representative.[12] It also includes the idea that heterogeneity, deliberately established in a program

Figure 18

PROFESSIONAL RELATIONS COMMITTEE:
THE SCHOOL



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[12] Kurt Lewin, *Field Theory in Social Science,* edited by D. Cartwright (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951).

of decentralization (see Chapter 3), enriches the kinds of solutions proposed and the opportunities for decision making.

The second principle has to do with the *integrative skill* of the administrator. When groups present the diverse ideas and understandings they have reached through interaction and discussion, the administrator must be able to integrate them. He must be able to create unity through diversity and to enhance the program by reaffirming and re-establishing the essentials basic to the whole profession.

Teacher Evaluation

Evaluation by the Administrator. Possibly the most trying task of the administrator is to evaluate other members of the profession. For this reason we are examining evaluation procedures in considerable detail. In the past, evaluation has been done by various check lists, as indicated elsewhere. It is not our purpose here to repeat the errors made in superficial approaches to evaluation. However, let us present an analysis of types of evaluative instruments:

> Though there are numerous deviations within each classification the evaluation devices observed so far fall generally into the following types:
>
> 1. Check Chart — long list of factors with a scale of 3 to 10 points.
> 2. Area Check Chart — for general areas (5 to 10), with 4 or 5 point rating scale.
> 3. Area Check Chart with Discussion Guide — detailed list of specific traits, skills or attitudes as basis for discussion between employee and evaluator, with summary ratings on only the few major headings.
> 4. Descriptive Check List — similar to (1) or (2), except that the meaning of each check is defined.
> 5. Narrative Evaluation — merely a record of conference with praise, criticism, and suggestions for improvement recorded.
> 6. Narrative Evaluation by Areas — usually a combination of (3) and (5).
> 7. Combination — usually a list of major areas for judgment with specific records required in some (such as community activities) and a rated scale for others (such as class control).
> 8. Self-Evaluation — Generally involves use of any of the above types except (5), but requiring the evaluee to complete a self-appraisal prior to his evaluation conference. In some plans the self-evaluation also is entered in the employee's permanent file, while in others it is used merely as an aid to self-improvement and to the conference itself.[13]

Most of these are simply check lists or combinations of check lists with some added anecdotal material. On the whole they do not lead to much insightful participation either by the administrator or by the teacher. Self-evaluation, suggested as a possible outcome of many of the others, may become defensive and more rigid rather than evaluative and more flexible. Also, the teacher for whose enhancement the evaluation is made is not considered at all, in spite of the fact that the same monograph suggests that teacher participation is of considerable importance.

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[13] California Teachers Association, *Sample Personnel Policies*, Third Progress Report, Joint Committee on Personnel Procedures, October 1954, p. 10.

> In its first progress report, the [California Teachers Association] Joint Committee proposed that teachers and teachers' associations assume certain definite responsibilities in the evaluation process and efforts toward in-service growth. It suggested that further experimentation might develop even wider areas of such participation.
>
> Several districts have studied and struggled to determine the proper extent of teacher participation in evaluation, and to devise a method by which this could be attained without opening the door to other problems. . . .
>
> With few exceptions, teacher participation has been limited to those cases in which negative evaluations threaten dismissal, usually by appeal from the colleague in question. A few, however, have set up automatic participation.[14]

Although the profession is seeking teacher participation, the instruments used tend to interfere with this goal, and, as stated, the participation is usually "automatic." Therefore, approaches should be considered that might improve teacher participation on a more empathic level and establish a closer rapport between administrator and teacher.

A shorter form with a more significant rationale which would enable the administrator to discuss some of these matters in greater depth would certainly help. It is almost impossible to discuss with much insight the question of appearance or voice. As a matter of fact, even if one improves his voice and uses cosmetics to make his appearance more attractive, the improvement may have little or no significance. As we have suggested throughout, other ways of perceiving the teacher lead to more profitable interaction and to important dialogue — a situation in keeping with the fundamental premises to which this text is dedicated. One such proposed evaluation follows:[15]

> In devising an appropriate teacher evaluation instrument, every effort was made to create an evaluation instrument devoid of the perfunctory check-list items so commonly found in teacher evaluation forms.
>
> *Criteria Used in the Teacher Evaluation Scale*
>
> 1. Supportive Humor — Destructive Humor
> 2. Sensitivity — Lack of Sensitivity
> 3. Empathic — Non-Empathic
> 4. Receptivity — Non-Receptivity
> 5. Considerate — Inconsiderate
> 6. Permissive — Authoritarian
> 7. Insightful — Non-Insightful

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[14] *Ibid.*

[15] Russell Henry Gibbons, "A Study Investigating the Self Worth and Acceptance or Rejection by Peers of Selected Students in the Advanced Instructional Program [the gifted program] of the Pittsburgh Unified School District," unpublished thesis, Sacramento State College, 1964.

The reader will note that all seven items used in the teacher evaluation scale indicated above were purported to elicit the humanistic qualities each teacher used in his daily teaching practice. These particular criteria were cited as they evaluate each teacher in light of his respect for the basic human dignity of the individual.

Arnold points out the importance of supportive humor:

Regarding Supportive Humor

"It is part of human dignity to want to be considered as a person, no matter what the circumstances. To be laughed at or be the object of humor in order to intimidate the individual to make him conform is contrary to the respect of the basic human dignity of man."

Concerning sensitive, receptive, and considerate teachers, Arnold states:

Regarding Sensitivity

"Emotions influence a person's life. To draw positive benefits from emotional situations, students must have supportive action from some source in solving rather than evading their problems."

Dixon and Morse in predicting teacher success through the empathic potential relate that:

Regarding Empathy

". . . individuals who have high empathic capacity as measured by pupil responses are also seen as better teachers."

Arnold defines empathy as:

". . . the source of our knowledge of others and an awareness of the feelings of others. We literally share his experience through our imagination."

In his book on human relations in education, Louis Kaplan describes teaching as:

Regarding Receptivity

". . . one of the few occupations where the practitioner's professional success is so closely related to personal qualities. Teachers retain their effectiveness as professional persons only so long as they remain warmly human, sensitive to the personal needs of children, and skillful in establishing effective relationships with them."

Allport explains:

Regarding Consideration

"Men are basically eager for friendly and affiliative relations with others, provided these relations preserve their own sense of integrity and self esteem. Indignity to one's self esteem quickly generates hatred."

"Actually, in proportion as a man's affiliative needs are met, aggression and hostility disappear."

Relative to permissiveness, Allport states:

Regarding Permissiveness

"Research has shown that a person wants to remain an integrated human being desiring congenial, informal relations with his fellows and wanting to be consulted in matters concerning himself."

While studying the effects of teacher warmth, Horace B. Reed found that:

Re: Being Insightful

"The relationship between pupils' perceptions of teachers' behaviors that relax interpersonal tensions (warmth) and pupil criteria: when the criteria are comprehensive and/or attitudinal in nature, the correlation will be significantly positive, and of moderate strength."

Fundamentally, teaching is a complex task. It consists of many inter-related tasks which pose many limitations in both the assessment and prediction of teaching success. Many times value judgments on what is "good teaching" and what is "poor teaching" have superseded the goals of education in terms of any actual assessment of teaching performance. There is no universal definition of what is "good" in teaching nor what is "poor" in teaching. However, all would agree that the child is foremost in any educational endeavor.

Based on the above, it was felt that the more humanistic the approach used by the teacher, the greater would be the student's gain. With this thought in mind, an evaluation instrument was originated to rate teachers on their humanistic approach to students.

The instrument itself contains seven items purported to move in the direction of insightful, supportive and considerate behavior and those purported to do the reverse. They were arranged arbitrarily on a five point scale. The items and the five point scale were related to the material quoted above. The higher the numerical total for each teacher, the higher would be that teacher's rating.

A Proposed Evaluation Instrument

	5	4	3	2	1	
Supportive Humor	•	•	•	•	•	Destructive Humor
Sensitivity	•	•	•	•	•	Lack of Sensitivity
Empathic	•	•	•	•	•	Non-Empathic
Receptivity	•	•	•	•	•	Non-Receptivity
Considerate	•	•	•	•	•	Inconsiderate
Democratic	•	•	•	•	•	Authoritarian
Insightful	•	•	•	•	•	Non-Insightful

The items described here are ambiguous but significant. Because of their ambiguity, they can be the basis for an ongoing dialogue between the evaluator and the person being evaluated. They could also act as a springboard for the in-service education of the entire faculty.

One question always arises: What of the individual who does not perform satisfactorily? It would seem that an individual who indulges for the most part in destructive humor, who lacks sensitivity, who is not empathic, who cannot accept others, who is inconsiderate, who is authoritarian, and who lacks insight is certainly not qualified to work with others either as a teacher or as an administrator. Such a complete deficiency would be more persuasive than untidy appearance, poor voice, tardiness, strange methodology, etc. On the other hand, it is possible that some outstanding qualities, such a marked ability to be empathic, sensitive, and insightful, would compensate for some sarcasm, some dictatorial behavior, and some degree of lack of consideration. The matter is a complex one, but then so is the ability to understand an individual's professional skill. To oversimplify is to damage both the profession and the individuals engaged in the interaction that takes place during evaluation.

Evaluation by Students. Student evaluation needs to be encouraged. Here again, the instruments generally available have been basically concerned with superficial kinds of pupil satisfaction rather than with the level of understanding and degree of knowledge that the teacher is able to transmit to the student. Moreover, the deeper feelings of the student have not actually been compared with these more superficial feelings. Recently, one of our students devised an instrument which seems to remedy this defect, and we are submitting here a portion of the material as a suggestion for designing more sophisticated instruments to measure student evaluation.[16]

Study in Area of Teacher Personnel

INTRODUCTION

Teacher evaluation and criteria of performance forms include many traits, techniques and qualities of teaching which appear to be considered equally important in the evaluation of teaching personnel. The intent of this particular study was to identify what particular qualities of teaching have special meaning for students in terms of being most influential in contributing to their success — as students view certain teachers and an educational experience in retrospect.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The field study problem in the area of teacher personnel consisted of the sending of a questionnaire to 120 recent (last 5 years) graduates of the Sacramento City College Associate in Arts Degree Nursing Program. The questionnaire was to be answered as it applied to some teacher of the graduate's choice — in any department of the college — who had meaning for the graduate in terms of contributing to his or her success.

Section one of the questionnaire consisted of a list of 20 characteristics of teachers which were selected from evaluation forms or standards of performance currently used. These ranged from more superficial techniques of teaching to more subtle qualities of teaching. They were worded in a positive way and were arranged in random order. The odd-numbered characteristics were more generally — although not consistently — more obvious surface traits. The even-numbered items were generally — although not consistently — less obvious, more subtle characteristics. These were to be checked individually — first, whether they applied to the teacher, and second, whether or not they were important to the individual.

Questionnaire

Do you remember what personality factors in a teacher had meaning for you in terms of contributing to your success? If so, please do not name the teacher, but instead check the following list of characteristics as each applies to that teacher: first — whether it applies to the individual, and second — whether you considered it important. Check under the "?" if you are in doubt or cannot remember.

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[16] Elizabeth D. Joseph, unpublished field study in the area of teacher personnel, 1963–64.

	Does it apply to the individual?			*Was it important to you?*		
	Yes	*?*	*No*	*Yes*	*?*	*No*
1. Attended to physical atmosphere, heating and ventilation.						
2. Encouraged unanimous class participation.						
3. Kept room and materials neatly arranged.						
4. Was usually straightforward, did not dodge problems.						
5. Used good English at all times.						
6. Seemed to be consistently fair in dealing with all students.						
7. Set up clear rules of class work and conduct.						
8. Was generally considerate of the individual.						
9. Spoke in well-modulated voice, easily understood.						
10. Was reasonable and understanding of personal problems.						
11. Made assignments clear and adequately in advance.						
12. Seemed to know when students needed individual or extra help.						
13. Was generally well-prepared each day.						
14. Seemed to be honest in admission of limitations, errors, etc.						
15. Was consistently poised and professional.						
16. Seemed to take a personal interest in students.						
17. Strived to improve students' general work habits.						
18. Encouraged discussion and conflicting ideas.						
19. Was interested in subject and encouraged achievement.						
20. Generally gave students feeling of self-worth and adequacy.						

RESULTS

Return: Of the 120 questionnaires sent out, 96 or 80% were returned within 30 days.

The characteristics which the students checked as applying positively to the teacher they chose to describe fell in the following rank order; the number of checks ranged from 93 for the first ranked characteristic to 61 for the last.

("Does it apply to the individual?" — "Yes")

1. Was interested in subject and encouraged achievement.
2.5 Was generally considerate of the individual.
2.5 Was generally well-prepared each day.
4. Was usually straightforward, did not dodge problems.
5. Encouraged unanimous class participation.
6. Seemed to take a personal interest in students.
7. Made assignments clear and adequately in advance.
8. Seemed to be consistently fair in dealing with all students.
9. Seemed to be honest in admission of limitations, errors, etc.
10.5 Spoke in well-modulated voice, easily understood.
10.5 Set up clear rules of class work and conduct.
12. Was consistently poised and professional.
13.5 Encouraged discussion and conflicting ideas.
13.5 Used good English at all times.
15. Was reasonable and understanding of personal problems.
16. Generally gave students feeling of self-worth and adequacy.
17. Strived to improve students' general work habits.
18. Seemed to know when students needed individual help.
19. Attended to physical atmosphere, heating and ventilation.
20. Kept room and materials neatly arranged.

The rank order of the characteristics checked as being important to the individual was as follows and ranged from 93 checks for the most important to 42 checks for the least important:

("Was it important to you?" — "Yes")

1. Was generally considerate of the individual.
2. Was usually straightforward, did not dodge problems.
3. Seemed to be consistently fair in dealing with all students.
4.5 Generally gave students feeling of self-worth and adequacy.
4.5 Was interested in subject and encouraged achievement.
6. Made assignments clear and adequately in advance.
7. Was generally well-prepared each day.
8. Spoke in well-modulated voice, easily understood.
9.5 Seemed to be honest in admission of limitations, errors, etc.
9.5 Seemed to know when students needed individual or extra help.
11. Was reasonable and understanding of personal problems.
12.5 Seemed to take a personal interest in students.
12.5 Encouraged unanimous class participation.
14. Encouraged discussion and conflicting ideas.

15. Set up clear rules of class work and conduct.
16. Strived to improve students' general work habits.
17. Used good English at all times.
18. Was consistently poised and professional.
19. Attended to physical atmosphere.
20. Kept room and materials neatly arranged.

Because of the variable introduced by the opportunity of a "?" answer if the student was in doubt or could not remember, the rank order of the "No" answers was listed and were as follows: the first, "Did it apply? — No" ranged from 0 for the least marked to 19 for the most marked. The second, "Was it important to you? — No" ranged from 0 for the least checked to 28 for the most checked. *Note:* These two following lists are ranked in reverse order — from the least negatively checked to the most negatively checked. Therefore, the characteristics highest in rank represent those least denied of the teacher (thus, most applicable) and those at the bottom of the rank the most denied (thus, the least applicable).

("Does it apply to the individual?" — "No") (Ranked from least to most checked)

1. Was interested in subject and encouraged achievement.
3. Was generally well-prepared each day.
3. Was usually straightforward, did not dodge problems.
3. Made assignments clear and adequately in advance.
5.5 Seemed to take a personal interest in students.
5.5 Was generally considerate of the individual.
7. Seemed to be honest in admission of limitations, errors, etc.
8.5 Encouraged unanimous class participation.
8.5 Was reasonable and understanding of personal problems.
10. Seemed to be consistently fair in dealing with all students.
12.5 Encouraged discussion and conflicting ideas.
12.5 Seemed to know when students needed individual or extra help.
12.5 Strived to improve students' general work habits.
12.5 Kept room and materials neatly arranged.
16. Generally gave students feeling of self-worth, adequacy.
16. Used good English at all times.
16. Attended to physical atmosphere, heating and ventilation.
18. Set up clear rules of class work and conduct.
19. Was consistently poised and professional.

As above, the characteristics in the list below that are highest in rank represent those least denied as being important (thus, most important) and those at the bottom of the rank are most denied as being important (thus, least important) for the student.

1.5 Was interested in subject and encouraged achievement.
1.5 Was usually straightforward, did not dodge problems.
4.5 Seemed to be consistently fair in dealing with all students.
4.5 Was generally considerate of the individual.
4.5 Was generally well-prepared each day.
4.5 Generally gave students feeling of self-worth and adequacy.

7.5 Was reasonable and understanding of personal problems.
7.5 Seemed to be honest in admission of limitations, errors, etc.
9. Made assignments clear and adequately in advance.
10. Seemed to know when students needed individual or extra help.
11. Encouraged discussion and conflicting ideas.
12.5 Seemed to take a personal interest in students.
12.5 Spoke in well-modulated voice, easily understood.
14. Encouraged unanimous class participation.
15. Set up clear rules of class work and conduct.
16. Strived to improve students' general work habits.
17. Was consistently poised and professional.
18. Used good English at all times.
19. Kept room and materials neatly arranged.
20. Attended to physical atmosphere, heating and ventilation.

Rank Correlation: The rank correlation of the characteristics that applied to the teacher described, compared to the characteristics that were important to the individual, according to the Spearman Formula for rank correlation, was .6579, thusly:

$$p = \frac{1 - 6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

The rank correlation of the characteristics that did not apply to the teacher that were not considered important, by the same formula, was .6782.

If the variable of a "?" choice of answer had not been introduced the rank order of the characteristics applying positively would have a perfect correlation with the characteristics applying negatively in reverse order. Because of the variable a rank correlation was done as a check and was found to be .6961. Also, the rank order of the characteristics felt to be important was correlated with the rank order of these same characteristics denied as important in reverse order and was found to be .93158.

The foregoing data show that students list the deeper and more significant factors involved in teaching as important to them; while they appreciate the more superficial aspects, these come at the end of the rank order. Not only this, but the correlation between important aspects of teaching like the teacher's interest in the students and knowledge of subject matter is very high whereas that of tidiness and professional appearance is quite low. Note also how empathic social behaviors have great meaning for the student and are given much personal approval while those related to shallow behavior have much less import. Such opinions do more than "rate" teachers. They assist in setting directions for research in personnel administration.

Self-Evaluation. Much has been written regarding self-evaluation,[17] but very few instruments have been devised to help the teacher engage in self-evaluation.

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[17] Arthur T. Jersild, *When Teachers Face Themselves* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955); Jean Grams, "Understanding Intergroup Relations," *NEA Research Bulletin,* Stock No. 11–520 (1960).

It goes without saying that self-evaluation is the most professional of all the evaluation methods. As we have suggested, the crucial factor in self-evaluation is the ability of the individual to examine his own personality. We have also indicated some of the competencies that he must evaluate if he is to perceive himself as a superior instructor (see p. 304 and pp. 311–312).

Perhaps the administrator's ability to create an environment of security and acceptance is best illustrated when most, if not all, of his faculty are willing to engage in self-evaluation. Sensitive and empathic as an administrator can become, he can never examine with as great depth both the assets and the limitations of his teachers. Only the professional person himself can do this. But he will not be willing to unless the administrator has created the right environment.

> One supervisor uses a complimentary device. He always seeks out some strength of the teacher, some method or some work, and says, "This is an excellent thing you are doing." He has reported to us that the most common response he seems to get goes along these lines: "Well, it looks all right today, but it certainly was a mess the other day. What would you have done about . . . ?"

The above is only one way, almost a naive one, of working from strengths to create an environment in which the individual teacher is able to become more self-evaluative. In our judgment the administrator who builds this kind of environment has performed his professional task at a very high level. Such evaluation transcends the administrator's evaluation, the students' evaluation, and even peer evaluation. Professional behavior is at its best when the professional person himself is able to weigh both his successes and his failures honestly.

Let us examine a document which attempts to describe a climate conducive to self-evaluation.[18]

Underlying Premises Related to the Construction of an Instrument for the Evaluation of Teachers

I. The Instrument and Its Use (in order of importance)
    A. As an instrument for continuing self-evaluation
    B. As an instrument for future in-service education
    C. As an outline of limits to be used for teacher evaluation
II. The Method of Approach with Regard to Building the Instrument
    A. Based primarily on personality factors which involve:
        1. Relationship with children
        2. Relationships with parents and community

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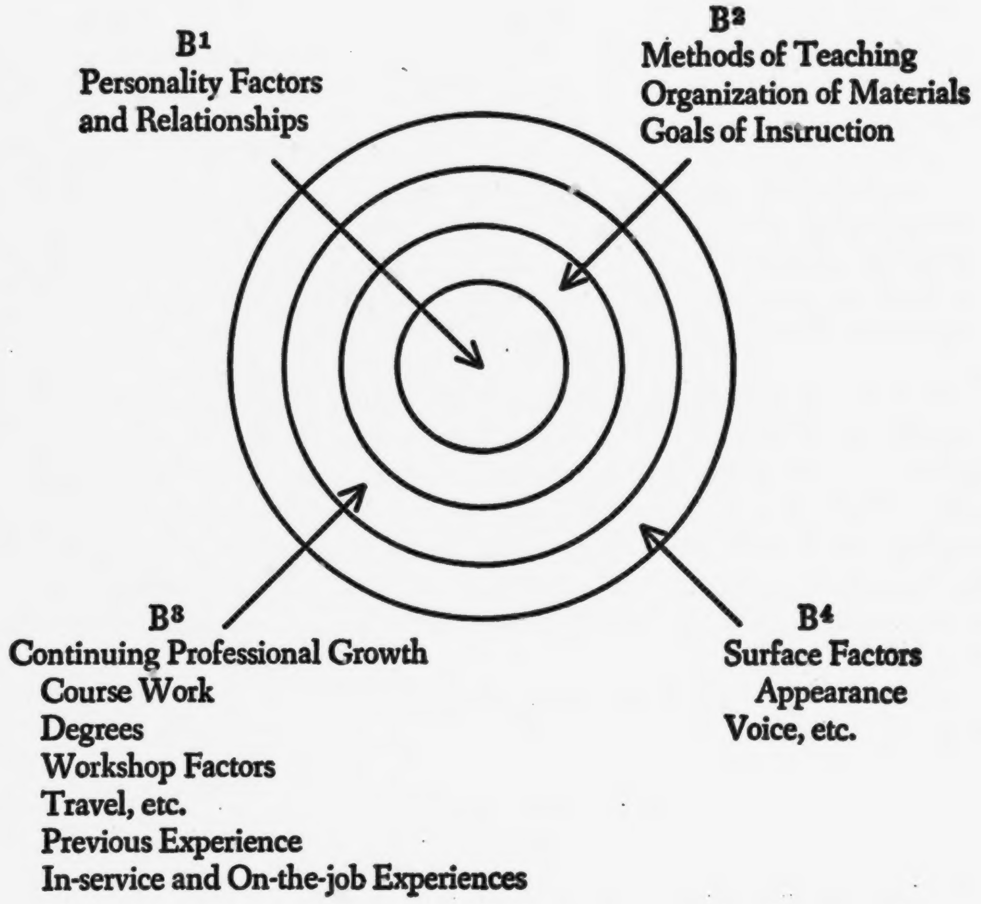
[18] "Interpersonal Relationships as a Measure of Teacher Performance," San Rafael (Calif.) City Schools Sub-Committee on Teacher Evaluation of the Personnel Committee, Warren Dohemann, Chairman; Benjamin M. Sachs, Consultant. Reproduced and distributed by the Profesisonal Relations and Tenure Committee, California Teachers Association, Northern Section, January 1958.

   3. Relationship with peers
   4. Attitudes regarding education as a profession and social science

B. The instrument moves outward in following progression:
   1. Personality factors
   2. Methods of organizing material and teaching
   3. Professional and in-service growth
   4. Apparent surface factors, i.e., appearance, voice, etc.



I. A Description of Classroom Relationships as a Method of Teacher Evaluation

Since the basic responsibility of the teacher is to the children he serves, the relationship established with them is the most significant. The committee feels that this relationship is based on understanding and insight rather than on teaching method. With this in mind, we have designated the following as suggestive of that teacher who creates interpersonal relationships which are excellent. We follow this with the description of a contrasting situation.

EXCELLENT FORMAL TEACHER

The class is conducted by the teacher in a formal manner with a feeling of warmth and acceptance on the part of both the teacher and the children. The teacher is able in this environment to point out the kinds of learning necessary, the kinds of development acceptable without creating fear or inadequacy on the part of most students. He is able to indicate the limits of behavior without domination. Each person knows his responsibilities and accepts them readily not only because teacher says so, but because they are reasonable and meaningful to students.

This teacher encourages discussion and accepts various points of view. From this comes a feeling of belongingness, and the group sees itself as a unit. The class is more than a number of individuals, each competing against the other; it is a group seeing itself as a team working together toward common goals.

Control is maintained easily and with a minimum of negative psychology; thus discipline consists mostly of indicating what things are done, and only infrequently what things are not done. Because of this, the children in general know what is expected of them. Since these limits, both of behavior and acceptance, are geared to the needs of the individual child and the group, both children and teacher are relaxed and feel a sense of accomplishment.

At the conclusion of the session a number of children may crowd around the teacher's desk, and the exchange that ensues is a friendly and possibly a humorous one.

In less formal situations, such as physical education, some of the formality of the teacher is put aside. In other words, he is able to adjust to various situations by adjusting his own behavior.

In conclusion, we should remember that certain conditions and experiences make for more formal methods. In this regard, the following seems to be true:

1. In general, the less experienced teacher may use more formal methods, since the method calls for less delegation of authority to the child, and thus enables the teacher to maintain more direct control.
2. The size of classes tends to influence the method used, since the larger the class the more formal the instruction needs to be in order to maintain control.
3. The formal method may be more desirable in certain subject areas.

EXCELLENT INFORMAL TEACHER

In the informal atmosphere established by this teacher, similar interpersonal relationships exist as was indicated in the description of the formal teacher. It is the teaching method which is different. Here, children are usually at work on projects. These projects, however, have been organized so the children know what their goals are; and they are able to adjust adequately. Here, too, we have a warm and insightful atmosphere as in the previous situation. In addition, the children feel free to move toward the teacher at such times as problems present themselves. Also, the teacher looks toward them and anticipates their needs and is alert to the interests of each group.

It should be noted particularly that, because the project method tends to create a less formal environment, the organization of the method itself must be very complete and well thought out in order that these plans might be adequately transferred to the children. Children are part of the planning. Projects are completed and integrated across subject lines. Visual aids are used appropriately. It is clear that the teacher realizes the scope and sequence of the entire program in this planning.

In this kind of environment, children tend to help one another and to share with another; thus, the observer will see one child assisting another or sharing some of his work with him. Both children and teacher understand one another and participate pleasurably together. The teacher consciously tries to develop leadership in the children and assigns tasks with that in mind.

SUMMARY

These two teachers show an ability to invest in children. Obviously, some subjects lend themselves more easily to one or more of the methods and so teachers will many times shift and adjust to them. Certainly, it is clear that both of these teachers enjoy teaching. Because of this pleasure in their work, they are relaxed, have a sense of humor, and find the task less arduous than would others.

[See page 224 for a complete summary of the above.]

POOR FORMAL TEACHER

In this formal atmosphere we may see one of two things. First, one might encounter a non-sharing personality who maintains strict control, but never invests in children. There is a kind of coldness and lack of humor inherent in this environment. The children are docile and apparently cooperative, but they do not, for the most part, reach the instructor. Second, we may see an over-energetic individual who disciplines selfishly, externally, by over-domination of the children. Here, too, we have a lack of investment, but it appears to be a kind of over-investment. In other words, the teacher has the children in the palm of his hand, so to speak, and has closed his fist. Both of these teachers indicate only what they want without making the children conscious of the need for the kind of behavior they are demanding.

There may appear a ritualistic approach to subject-matter and discipline. Thus, success is related to grades, and behavior to conformity. Tasks leave little room for creativity on the part of the individual. In fact, there is little or no opportunity for the expression of individual differences, and deviation from identical standards rigidly set by the teacher constitute a threat to him which he must suppress immediately.

POOR INFORMAL TEACHER

Typical of this kind of individual is the fact that he is not well organized. His children tend to float from pillar to post and are not sure where they are going. This teacher has no definite plans, fails to capture and find out interests of pupils, becomes lost in too many projects and groups, and overlooks the need to have both children and teacher evaluate their progress. This type of individual is in direct contrast to the poor traditional teacher who may in fact over-organize.

In this environment, the child expresses so much that he may become anarchistic. But, because he wants to know, as do all persons, where he is going, he finds himself in a frustrating situation. The fact that no limits are set by the teacher may result in the feeling on the part of the student that the teacher does not "care."

Thus we see the interesting phenomenon of having a poor formal teacher and the poor informal teacher, although apparently at opposite ends in terms of methodology, arriving at the same results in terms of behavior. The very constrictiveness of the former compresses children so they have no depth, and the very disorganization of the latter spreads them so thin that they also can develop no depth, albeit that in the first method only one dimension is established in contrast to two in the second.

SUMMARY

In general, these two teachers show an inability to invest in children. Both teachers are actually somewhat fearful of children; one, because the children might "run away" with the class; the other, because he is afraid to set behavioral limits.

[See page 224 for a complete summary of the above.]

II. A Description of Parent-Teacher Relationships as a Method of Teacher Evaluation

The California Teachers Association states in its *Code of Ethics* that "The teacher recognizes the concern of the parent for the child's development and is ready to share this responsibility and to cooperate with him for the best interest of the child." If we accept this premise, then the relationship that the teacher establishes between the home, the parent, and the school is a crucial one. The committee therefore wishes to deal with this matter next.

DESIRABLE PARENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS

The understanding teacher approaches parent-teacher conferences with the idea of discussing the strength of the child, indicating the scope and sequence of the educational program, and planning cooperatively with the parent for the continued success of the child. In addition, he is able, because of his own insights, to draw the parent out, to give him the opportunity to indicate his hopes for his child. Through this process, the teacher becomes more aware of what in his program he should emphasize in order to serve both child and parent.

It should be noted here that sometimes goals set for children may be unrealistic, either from the teacher's point of view, or from the parent's point of view. The discussion of a program particularly suited to the child enables both the parent and the teacher to determine more adequately the educational goals for the child. The teacher is aware that parents are deeply concerned with the success or failure of their children and is, therefore, a reassuring person.

In this connection we should be aware of the fact that sometimes a teacher's values and standards may not be the values and standards of the parents whom the teacher may meet. Where this is so, the teacher should be careful that he is not judging student and parent by standards that are not meaningful to them.

In addition, parents sometimes approach the school with a feeling of "Maybe they don't want me." Occasionally, too, parents are fearful of teachers because of their own school experiences with them. The teacher not only expects the parents to come to him, but recognizes that he must make it easy for parents to come to the school and, in a number of instances, may need to go more than half-way to reach out to the parent. This he does not only because he is sensitive to people, but also because he is aware that parents represent the citizens most concerned with the welfare of the schools and, where they do not understand the program, they are the ones most concerned and upset.

A parent-teacher conference which relates solely to a discussion of academic success or failure is one which is only duplicating a report card. But a parent-teacher conference that is held in the interest of each knowing the other better and both gaining greater insights into the needs as well as the background of the child and the teacher is far more meaningful. Indeed, the educator realizes that the parents represent one of the most important factors in his success or failure of a child.

We should also be aware that some parents may be ahead of the teacher in concepts relating to his own child, or in education in general. Where this is so, the teacher is able to recognize this and is secure enough to accept contributions made by the parent which may modify the teacher's behavior and method.

In order to create greater unity between child, home, and school, the teacher encourages parent participation not only in formal Parent-Teacher Association meetings, but also with regard to some of the day-to-day tasks which involve both the student and the teacher. The teacher may, in fact, utilize some of the knowledge and skills of the parent, and bring those into the classroom. Thus, a parent who is a contractor might well be a resource person for a study of materials. In this way the teacher's ability to strengthen the family and its ties with the school should be seen as desirable.

Probably the best indication of the teacher who is successful in parent-teacher relationships is the fact that parents frequently contact him to discuss mutual problems with him.

PARENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS WHICH ARE UNDESIRABLE

On the other side of the picture we see a teacher who calls in parents because he feels the child is a failure. He is over-critical of the child and of the parents. He tends to base much of his judgment of the family and the child on the relative success or failure of the child in his class. Such a teacher is often threatening to parents, and the parent leaves the conference unhappy and possibly resentful.

This teacher is unable to shift his values and has already prepared judgments based on evidence which he is convinced is correct and which the parent must often accept whether he wishes to or not. Regardless of the reality of such judgments, it is evident that the teacher has the feeling that he must "give the word to the parent" and solve problems for him. This lack of insight relates, of course, to the lack of insight regarding interpersonal relationships as discussed above.

The teacher may, in fact, blame his own failure upon the parents. Often he sees the desire of parents to evaluate the school's program or help their children as "interference" and discourages this kind of activity. Because of these factors, the teacher is usually quite egocentric and attempts to justify his own judgment primarily. He loses his empathy with parents and forgets that he is serving them as well as their children.

SUMMARY

1. A person who accepts parents as partners in the education of the child versus a person who sees parents as "interfering" with the process.
2. A person who can accept and understand parental values other than his own versus a person who can understand only his own values.

3. A person who can reassure and strengthen parental-child relationships versus a person who threatens or weakens them.
4. A person who welcomes participation by parents and reaches out to them versus a person who "calls in" parents because of failure of the child.
5. A person who sees both parent and teacher as contributing to the greater success of the child versus a person who sees the student's failure as the parent's fault.

III. A Description of Teacher-Peer Relationships as a Method of Teacher Evaluation

As was indicated in the analysis of the problem of evaluation, the success of a teacher is dependent upon his interpersonal relationships. In previous paragraphs the committee analyzed these relationships with regard to children and parents. We follow with a description of the teacher's relationships to other members of the profession.

Peer Relationships That Might Be Considered Successful

A teacher establishes desirable interpersonal relationships with his peers when he can share ideas, problems and methods with others. Not only is he willing to give assistance, but he is also able to accept new ideas.

Good peer relationships involve an individual's reaching out to others as well as the individual's waiting for others to come to him. Under these conditions, a feeling of belongingness is created by each member of the profession, and each has a share in the welfare and success of the other. Such a person is conscious of the fact that individuals grow more readily in a group than by themselves. A proper peer relationship is based on these broad understandings and insights.

This working and sharing requires a genuine rapport among teachers and between teachers and administrators. Teachers and administrators have respect for the integrity of each other and recognize that in proper peer relationships persons learn from one another and ideas flow in all directions. In good peer relationships administration is seen not as authoritarian, but as performing a service to the profession. Nor does the administrator conceive of himself as the sole authority. Rather he sees himself as serving the teacher much in the same fashion as the teacher serves his pupils. The teacher is able to accept and is interested in accepting the services of the administration. In this way, teacher and administrator become aware of common goals and needs.

Differences of opinion are accepted and integrated into the general scheme of things. Where differences are only partially resolved, those related to personalities or professional concepts remain within the profession; and lay persons are not involved in their solution. Although diversity of opinion may in fact be desirable, proper peer relationships consist of creating and maintaining ethical standards. This does not preclude differences. Rather, it suggests that differences need to be seen in light of professional concepts. In other words, proper peer relationships consist of creating unity on a professional basis.

The teacher who places interest of the group and the profession before his own, is more valuable to himself and to his peers. He does have "self-interest," but he is not selfish. He sees his success essentially as a contribution to the success of his group and his profession.

PEER RELATIONSHIPS THAT MIGHT BE CONSIDERED UNSUCCESSFUL

This teacher shares ideas only when required to do so. As an older teacher, he finds it difficult to accept the suggestions of a younger one. As a new teacher, he may feel that seeking help is an indication of weakness. He resents authority because it is authority — not what its contribution might be. Under certain conditions, when his contribution is not acceptable by the group, he may retreat with a kind of bitterness at this "injustice." Sometimes this bitterness may carry beyond professional confines.

On the other hand, administrators may see their role justified by rank rather than by the service they can offer. They become "bosses" then, rather than leaders whose purpose is to release the creative energies of their teachers.

Such a person, whether a teacher or an administrator, may have a tendency to reinforce his position by undermining the position of others. He maintains little or no enthusiasm, and while appearing "objective," this objectivity may, in fact, be related to a kind of standing still, i.e., "what was good before . . . is good enough now." In other words, having once committed himself to a concept, he finds it almost impossible to adjust to opinions and attitudes of others.

On the other hand, change for change's sake alone is not necessarily desirable. It is the balance between the past and the new, when based on service to peers, parents, and children, that makes for the best peer relationships.

SUMMARY

1. A "giving" or receptive person versus a rejecting person.
2. A "self-interested" versus a selfish person.
3. A person who creates security in others versus a person who tends to threaten them.
4. A friendly, enthusiastic person versus a relatively cold one.
5. A person who gains strength by strengthening others versus a person who gains status by undercutting others.
6. A person who is responsive and accepting of others' ideas versus a person who is not responsive and resisting of others' ideas.
7. A person who sees education as a profession and thus is ethical in his relationship with his peers versus a person who carries disagreements out of the professional group to the public.

IV. The Teacher's Relationship to Education as a Profession [This section has been deleted since it has been discussed throughout the text.]

The foregoing instrument, too, is difficult to apply, but it encourages discussion and interaction. Even more significant, if taken seriously, it asks the individual to appraise himself continuously, and it suggests a number of guidelines which help him to do so. We do not wish to suggest that it is the only instrument possible to achieve this goal. It is one with which we are familiar. It probably would be desirable if each district developed descriptive instruments of its own which included ways of creating self-evaluative procedures. Thus each succeeding instrument might become more sophisticated in achieving this complex task.

The Reality Principle: Application and Misapplication

Early in the chapter we discussed the reality principle as it related to personnel administration. In the remainder of this chapter we attempt to illustrate practical aspects of the principle. Actually reality and practicality are equivalent, for reality identifies that which *is* operating and not that which we feel *should be* operating. In this identification, reality becomes related to empathy as well (see Chapter 13).

If the educational leader faces the matters discussed and deals with them as realistically as he can and is able to communicate his approach, the chances for enhancing the profession and the dignity of the teachers will be greatly increased. There will always be a few who are themselves extremely punitive and who will feel that all decisions should be clear and "clean-cut" and made without consideration of the people involved. But, as indicated elsewhere, these are the shallow and authoritarian people. For the most part the professional teacher is a sensitive person struggling toward understanding, and he is the one the administrator must constantly keep in mind if his personnel practices are to be optimal.

Some ideas, supposedly founded on reality principles, which have come to us over a period of time, are in our opinion antiquated; they damage professionalism and personnel practices, for realities, particularly professional realities, change with time, research, and growing knowledge. We will mention two of these.

In the interest of "saving money," many districts give only one-half year of credit for each year of teaching up to a maximum number of years, perhaps five. Since most salary schedules involve at least 10 steps and sometimes as many as 20, the 10 or 15 years of experience in terms of increments often makes a teacher a "captive" of his district. Obviously, this is an unprofessional practice. It is not in use either in the other professions or in business.

When a large corporation hires an apprentice, it pays him an apprentice's wages; by the same token the union demands a journeyman's wages for a journeyman. At the executive level, a junior executive with less experience receives less money and is expected to perform less adequately than a more experienced executive. As he gains experience, his salary is, of course, increased. But what is more important, if another firm decides to hire the junior executive, or if he wishes to change jobs, the company usually grants him the salary to which he is entitled by virtue of his experience. Such a condition at the present time is unavailable in many districts to many teachers.

The right to charge fees commensurate with skill, experience, and services is available to doctors, dentists, and attorneys. It is part of the ideal of the open society. Yet for the most part it has been denied teachers. The question arises whether sums of money saved this way do not create a loss of self-worth and the professional image which eventually interferes with service to students as the teacher continues in the profession. What we are suggesting is that teachers be given year-for-year credit in terms of experience, and that districts follow the lead of business and of those wishing to employ more skilled professionals.

If the districts wish to employ more experienced teachers, they might examine qualifications more carefully but pay accordingly. So a beginning teacher, like a beginning attorney, may be paid less and be hired more rapidly. But an experienced teacher, like an experienced attorney, should be paid in terms of his experience but hired after more intensive study regarding his usefulness.

Another antiquated notion is that teachers will not continue to educate themselves unless they are rewarded in some tangible way. Many districts designate a reward of several hundred dollars or a step in the salary schedule to be earned within a given number of years. These are often called "hurdle" credits. They are rooted in suspicion. Yet the very nature of a profession involves a commitment to learning and is in direct conflict with this idea (see Chapter 14).

One board of education on the advice of the administration deleted from its salary schedule the requirement of hurdles for advancement on the schedule. However, it asked the teachers to keep a record of the work they did during the succeeding three years on forms provided in order to see whether a permissive approach obtained similar results. The data proved that at the end of this time the work done by the teachers actually far exceeded what had been done in the previous three years. Comments made by the teachers were enlightening:

"It was to my interest to take these courses."
"I wanted to know more about my subject."
"I need an M.A. degree anyway."
"I want this credential."

Some Illustrative Cases Involving Personnel

Despite the use of the faculty meetings and small-group interaction, administration is very often involved in working with an individual or a single problem. In fact, significant progress may be more often made on a face-to-face basis. In any case, whether in a small group or in a one-to-one relationship, the quality of the interaction needs to resemble that in the case approach. Three examples having to do with personnel problems will illustrate this point. We are not proposing any "pat" solution but suggesting that the complexity of the problems calls for this kind of interaction.

Case 1. Several custodians who were working in primary schools complained to the assistant superintendent in charge of non-certified personnel that the boys' washrooms, particularly the urinals, were most untidy. Apparently these primary boys were very careless about their personal habits. The assistant superintendent called a meeting of the four custodians involved.

The following questions arise in connection with this problem:

1. How old were the boys? What are the developmental characteristics of boys of this age?

2. Was this behavior deliberate or due in part to the maturation process and in part to a problem that may face men in general?
3. Was the equipment in the washrooms a contributing factor?

Only as questions like these are discussed frankly, with understanding, do solutions become clear. This, we suggest, is the "case" approach to personnel practices even though no single individual is involved. The examination of factors on this level produces the understandings that are part of the case-work approach as now practiced with the individual.

Let us turn to two cases concerning individuals.

> *Case* 2. A probationary teacher was given a rating of "Outstanding." However, her principal also included a statement to the effect that she had a personal problem involving her husband. It appeared that he was a disturbed person, probably an alcoholic. The husband also had the habit of calling her once or twice during the school day and thus interfering either with the teacher or with school procedure. For this reason the principal was not certain that he could recommend her for a contract the next year.

Questions arise here that must be answered with care and wisdom:

1. Shall the teacher be penalized because her husband is ill?
2. Are there ways of helping her to handle the situation without destroying her career?
3. If, despite her problem, she is still an "outstanding" teacher, are we justified in not renewing her contract?
4. Is it possible that because she has learned to face such a problem, her insight as a teacher has become more sophisticated?

Again, only as these questions are discussed and analyzed by the administrator and with the help of whatever consultative services are available to him can he come closer to ascertaining the more empathic answers. As he is able to analyze the questions with the teacher, he may find that both he and she develop greater empathy for each other and for the profession. Solutions may then suggest themselves. The answer may not lie in the decision regarding the contract, depending upon how the situation is diagnosed as a result of the interaction. Certainly, as the diagnosis becomes more adequate, so the solution will have more meaning for all concerned and the chances for the teacher to have further opportunities for practicing her profession will be enhanced.

> *Case* 3. A young kindergarten teacher ran afoul of a very exploitative young man who after promising to marry her absconded with what little savings she had. This traumatic experience caused the teacher to suffer a nervous breakdown. Upon the advice of her physician and since no other service was available, she voluntarily committed herself to an institution for treatment. When discharged she applied in the district for her former position. What should be done?

Again a number of questions arise.

1. Was this a superior teacher?
2. Under the circumstances, would most sensitive persons suffer severely?
3. Was the prognosis of the psychiatrist such as to indicate that she was capable of doing her work?
4. Would her re-employment, if the prognosis were favorable, increase the morale of other teachers who were observing what the administrative decision might be and upon what data it was to be based?

Decisions involving personnel are never easy, but unless their ambiguities are admitted, and unless the decisions are made with as much wisdom as the administrator can muster, the profession runs the risk of never emerging as a profession; and teachers, the professional workers, will become more cynical about administrative decisions as time passes. The administrator needs to become more and more aware that his personnel decisions have meaning not only for the immediate situation and its possible solution but for the faculty members who are observing him and for the profession, which may be either weakened or enhanced by his loss or growth of understanding. Too often what seems to be a decision for only one person threatens many and weakens others as well as education as a profession. As he becomes more empathic toward the individual teacher the administrator may threaten authoritarian faculty members; but he also strengthens democratic faculty members and the entire profession.

20

The Administrator and the Pupil

Outside of the family, the most important social agency in our society for helping the child achieve maturity is the school (see Section A). But the public school, as we have indicated, is a relatively young institution and subject to the errors of youth. While much progress has been made, there needs to be much improvement, particularly in the area of pupil-teacher and pupil-administrator relationships. Probably it will be impossible ever to achieve a perfect relationship between the administrator and the teacher and their pupils. But it is a goal "devoutly to be wished."

In 1964 a graph in *Education for a Changing World of Work* showed the results shown in Figure 19. It will be noted that, while 10 children enter elementary school, the mortality begins to mount in high school and reaches rather awesome proportions at the college level. At one college, of students already carefully screened and listed as the upper 25 per cent of the high school graduates of the state, there is a 40 per cent mortality in the freshman class.

Statistics show that approximately three out of every hundred citizens in the state of California have an associate of arts degree, the equivalent of a junior college education. Only two out of every hundred have an A.B. — this despite the fact that William Wirtz, Secretary of Labor, declared in a speech given at a news conference in Texas in January 1964 that in the next 40 years there will be no room for unskilled labor and that the only employable people will be skilled craftsmen or technicians. Further, it was his feeling that such training would involve at least a junior college education. In the light of this fact the administrative decisions regarding the pupil become all the more pressing.

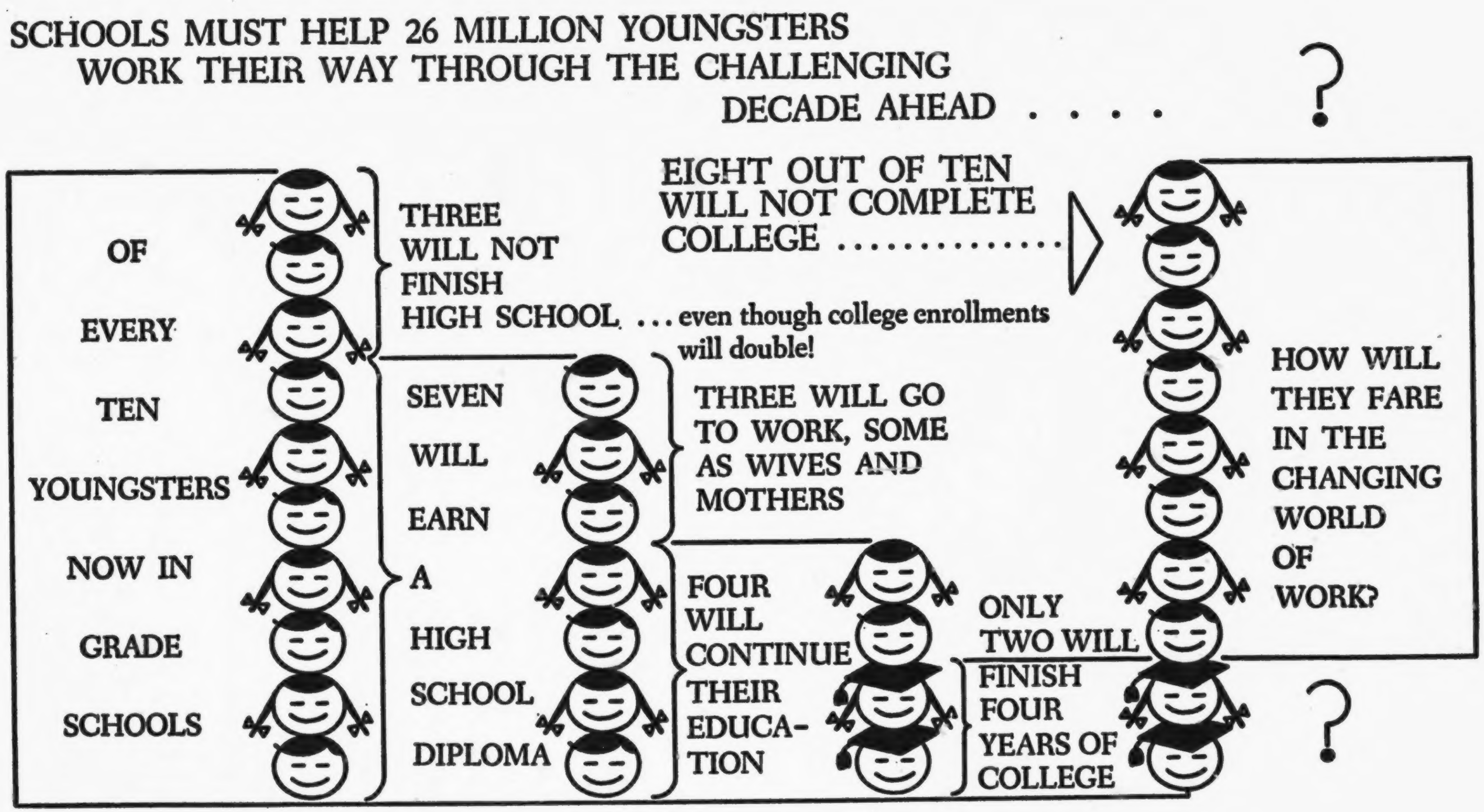
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Discriminatory Factors Interfering with Interpersonal Relationships

One of the most destructive elements in interpersonal relationships is the unconscious discrimination of administrators as well as teachers toward students

Figure 19

EDUCATION FOR A CHANGING WORLD OF WORK


SCHOOLS MUST HELP 26 MILLION YOUNGSTERS WORK THEIR WAY THROUGH THE CHALLENGING DECADE AHEAD . . . .
?
OF EVERY TEN YOUNGSTERS NOW IN GRADE SCHOOLS
THREE WILL NOT FINISH HIGH SCHOOL . . . even though college enrollments will double!
EIGHT OUT OF TEN WILL NOT COMPLETE COLLEGE . . . .
SEVEN WILL EARN A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA
THREE WILL GO TO WORK, SOME AS WIVES AND MOTHERS
FOUR WILL CONTINUE THEIR EDUCATION
ONLY TWO WILL FINISH FOUR YEARS OF COLLEGE
HOW WILL THEY FARE IN THE CHANGING WORLD OF WORK?
?

From U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *Education for a Changing World of Work* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1962), p. 2.

who come from different economic levels or who have different I.Q.'s, abilities, or values from those they are familiar with or approve of. Tests also discriminate, so it is possible to predict the following scores and classification with surprising accuracy:

Socioeconomic Level	*Median IQ Scores and Classification*
Upper and upper-middle class	110–115 IQ; upper ability in English, math, history ("X" group)
Middle-middle class Lower-middle class	100 IQ; middle group in English, math, history ("Y" group)
Lower class	90 IQ; lower group in English, math, history ("Z" group)

This setup is not surprising in view of the usual lack of contact with materials that are related success on IQ and achievement tests in the lower-class groups, i.e., reading matter in the home, encyclopedias, etc. But in addition, the sample involved in the test as contrasted to the sample in the school often influences the test results. This is the case even when the test is standardized carefully and proper ratios are used among Anglo-Americans, Spanish-Americans, and Negro Americans as they appear in the United States. When the test is given in schools largely composed of these groups, such ratios often disappear. If a test standardized on the national figure of 10 or 11 per cent of the Negro sample in keeping with the national population is given in a school with a population of 30 or 40 per cent Negro children, the sample has changed radically and the test may not measure accurately what it is purported to measure.

Very often, pressed for time, the administrator loses sight of obvious factors which lead to confused results, and the consequent discrimination destroys proper relationships with pupils.

> An intelligence test was given to first-graders in September. One teacher noted that a number of quite adequate children dropped in IQ score. She studied the manual carefully and discovered that the original test had been given and standardized in April. It was also recommended in the manual that the test be given in groups of not larger than 12. She obtained permission from the principal to follow the instructions to the letter and discovered, when using another form of the test in April, with smaller groups, that no student fell below his previous score and many raised their scores between 10 and 20 points.

The difference between September and April is a difference of eight months — seemingly a small amount of time; however, it should be remembered that first-graders are six-year-olds. Eight months measured in terms of their life span so far of 72 months represents approximately 10 per cent of their life — an enormous length of time for maturation as far as a six-year-old is concerned which certainly would have considerable influence on his growth and intelligence.

Other discriminatory factors have been isolated politically and legally and have been tested by the Supreme Court decision of 1963, which said, So long as large numbers of Negroes live in segregated areas, school authorities will be confronted with difficult problems in providing Negro children with the kind of education they are entitled to have. Residential segregation is in itself an evil which tends to frustrate the youth in the area and to cause anti-social attitudes and behavior. Where such segregation exists, it is not enough for a school board to refrain from affirmative discriminatory conduct. The harmful influence on the children will be reflected and intensified in the classroom if school attendance is determined on a geographic basis without corrective measures. *The right to an equal opportunity for education and the harmful consequences of segregation require that school boards take steps, insofar as reasonably feasible, to alleviate racial imbalance in schools regardless of its cause.*[1]

Table II

RACIAL DISTRIBUTION IN THE BERKELEY SCHOOLS
(Fall 1963)

Racially Integrated Elementary Schools				Enrollment
Jefferson	Caucasian 58.9%	Negro 13.2%	Oriental 27.0%	742
LeConte	" 52.4	" 37.3	" 10.1	485
Washington	" 46.6	" 30.0	" 20.0	616
TOTAL				1843
Predominantly Caucasian Elementary Schools				**Enrollment**
Cragmont	Caucasian 92.6%	Negro 1.7%	Oriental 5.7%	632
Cragmont Prim.	" 92.8	" 0.7	" 6.5	154
Emerson	" 95.6	" 0.6	" 3.5	315
Hillside	" 96.9	" 0.5	" 2.6	384
Hillside Prim.	" 95.9	" 0.5	" 3.6	197
John Muir	" 97.3	" 1.7	" 1.0	411
Oxford	" 93.4	" 0.6	" 5.4	332
Thousand Oaks	" 95.1	" 2.5	" 2.2	590
Whittier U.E.	" 85.1	" 4.5	" 9.3	463
TOTAL				3490
Predominantly Non-Caucasian Elementary Schools				**Enrollment**
Columbus	Caucasian 23.7%	Negro 72.6%	Oriental 3.1%	780
Franklin	" 27.1	" 61.8	" 10.1	859
Franklin Prim.	" 21.3	" 75.5	" 2.1	143
Lincoln	" 0.9	" 96.8	" 1.7	775
Longfellow	" 6.9	" 89.0	" 3.0	933
TOTAL				3490
Total Berkeley children in integrated elementary schools: 1843 (21.0%) Total Berkeley children in segregated elementary schools: 6968 (79.0%)				
TOTALS FOR DISTRICT: Caucasian 54% Negro 37.3% Oriental 8.0%				

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[1] John Hadsell, "De Facto Segregation in the Berkeley Public Schools," Report of a Citizens' Committee, Berkeley (Calif.) Unified School District, 1963.

Table III

Mean Intelligence Test Scores of Fifth-Grade Students

90–99	100–109	110–119
Columbus	Emerson	Cragmont
Franklin	Jefferson	Hillside
Lincoln	Le Conte	John Muir
Longfellow	Washington	Oxford
	Whittier	Thousand Oaks

Table IV

Schools Classed by Mean Scores of Fifth-Graders on Language Achievement Tests

One Year or More *Below* Grade Level	One Year or More *Above* Grade Level	
Columbus	Cragmont	Oxford
Franklin	Emerson	Thousand Oaks
Lincoln	Hillside	Whittier
Longfellow	John Muir	

Here is a definition of the legal responsibility of the board of education to do something about "equal opportunity for education" for all children. It is also a mandate for the administrator. True, a more recent ruling indicated that where boundaries had been set reasonably the board could not be held responsible. But the basic intent of removing the onus of "de facto" segregation remains as one of the most important problems that the administrator faces in relation to the pupil and his learning.

Both the statement concerning predictive factors mentioned above and the necessity for eliminating these discriminatory factors are further illustrated in the Berkeley Study made by Hadsell.

It is to be noted that the predictive factors mentioned above held true for the non-integrated schools in the Berkeley Unified School District, while the more integrated schools show a normal curve of distribution, so that it might be assumed that students find greater chances for "equal opportunity" here in the middle-class school. Are most administrators aware of this fact?

An institution which incarcerates young people who have failed and who have committed antisocial acts should reflect this lack of opportunity in the schools. If students in lower socioeconomic groups as well as students in minority groups have less opportunity in the schools, they will presumably show up more often

Table V

BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

National Origin	Youth Authority		Total Numbers in *Population* (1960 Census)	
	Total	*Percentage*		
Anglo-American	3075	53.6%	White	88.6%
Negro-American	1494	26.1	Negro	10.5
Spanish-American	1057	18.4	Other	.9
Oriental-American	17	.3		
Other	90	1.6		
	5733			

as behavior problems before juvenile courts and youth authorities. Such is indeed the case, as examination of the California Youth Authority statistics for the year 1963 will substantiate. (See Table V above.)

All but two of the minority groups (Oriental and Jewish) have numbers in the Youth Authority in excess of their proportion of the population, a fact which only bears out the idea of the importance of being a middle-class Caucasian. This fact, too, the administrator must contemplate if his attempts at solutions are to have meaning.

Another study which further illustrates the point was completed by a student in administration in her field service course.

> The technology program is a pilot course of study to begin the training of students who are interested in becoming technicians or craftsmen. The program is oriented toward the students continuing their education at ———, and from there entering the field of industry directly or through apprentice programs.
>
> Thirty-two students were selected for this initial program. They were screened by use of test scores, previous grades in school, interest in the program, the recommendations of counselors, and finally by the teachers selected to teach in the program. . . .
>
> Most students enrolled to try to find themselves, and for a chance to learn a skill for future employment.
>
> Most of the students were getting what they expected from the course. They expected concentrated work in certain areas, and knew they would have to study regularly. Those who are not benefitting from the course admittedly are not studying as they should, or asking questions when necessary. . . .
>
> Some of the more significant comments were:
>
> 1. "It was too much work, and it was my parents' idea for me to be in the course anyway." This boy seems to be trying to make his parents miserable by his failure. He has a number of questionable absences, although his mother has always "covered" for him by saying he was ill.
>
> 2. "I didn't realize I would have to work to succeed." When this student got

> behind he became lost, but admits he could have succeeded if he had tried harder. He also admits to being sort of lazy, and had never worked hard before. He plans to continue studies in electronics or drafting, and is beginning to realize he let a wonderful opportunity slip through his fingers.
>
> 3. "I did not study hard enough and the course was not what I expected."
> 4. "There was not enough explanation of the daily work and there was too much pressure." This student also stated that if he had felt motivated he would have worked harder.
> 5. "It was boring the way the classes were presented." The student felt the teachers did not spend enough time explaining some concepts before continuing to the next, then the student was "lost." . . .
>
> The results of the survey indicate that in some phases the courses are apparently moving too fast. Since 19 per cent of the students are dropped from the program within the first semester, we should re-evaluate the expected goals and methods of achievement, or maybe we should strive to obtain students of a higher measured ability for the program. Since this is a pilot program, it would be good for the instructors to constantly review the criticisms and suggestions of the students who are the ones to benefit ultimately, as well as immediately, from the courses offered. Also it should be helpful for the instructors to constantly review their teaching techniques and the results of their measures of achievement within the specific courses of study. If changes are indicated, the instructors should not hesitate to revise their methods of instruction for the benefit of the students. Also, the administrators of the school should not hesitate to consider the necessity for some changes if they seem necessary.
>
> The success or failure of the technology program can be of great importance to future programs of a similar nature within the ——— City School System, as well as in other school systems. Sensing this, educators from all over have visited ——— High School to learn more about this program.[2]

An interesting sidelight becomes apparent: Although the program was specifically designed to help 32 boys who had little or no other opportunity for successful training and therefore few realistic goals for the future, 19 per cent of them were dropped from it. This fact, taken together with Wirtz' statement that only skilled technicians and craftsmen will be employed in the next 40 years, makes it clear to both the administrator and the teacher that the program is not too successful. If it becomes general practice to lose about one-fifth of the students whose final goal would be to become mechanics, or factory workers, or workers at any of the numerous technical tasks so necessary in our society, the economy will have a hard time existing, let alone flourishing, with so many unemployable adults. Somewhere along the line these young people will have to be trained. The recent vocational education bill passed by Congress allocating $1.5 billion dollars for this purpose is only a step toward what will have to be done if the economy is not to degenerate into one in which the "haves" spend most of their resources supporting the "have-nots."

[2] Esther B. Graves, from an unpublished field study.

Some administrators and teachers are overcommitted to the idea that the academic program takes precedence over all other forms of learning. This is as discriminatory and prejudiced a factor in education as are prejudice and discrimination against minority groups. Because of it, the administrator's task becomes the more complex, for his own insights and skills need to be the more sophisticated. Bringing such matters to the conscious awareness of teachers and attempting to establish a more rational point of view is probably one of the most difficult tasks the administrator has to face. Note below how ineffective we have been in the past.

> . . . The data presented in *Education and Attitude Changes* cast a disappointing shadow over these bright hopes for the future. The book is a collation of data concerning prejudice toward Negroes and Jews drawn from 26 surveys conducted by several national polling organizations during the period 1944–1959. . . .
>
> The general conclusion drawn by the author is that education is *selectively* related to prejudice. More educated persons are less likely to believe crude stereotypes, e.g. "Jewish businessmen are shrewd and tricky," than are less educated persons. However, they are just as likely to believe refined stereotypes such as, "Jews are not as good (as members of one's own religious group) in being fair in business."
>
> Some of the most disappointing results are found in a nationwide comparison of college freshmen and seniors. There was little consistent difference between the two groups with respect to the expression of prejudiced opinions. For example, seniors were somewhat more willing than freshmen to accept Jews and Negroes as work partners but somewhat less willing to accept them as neighbors. . . .
>
> In summary, *Education and Attitude Change,* despite its methodological problems, deserves attention from social psychologists and educators concerned with reducing prejudice. They will find no definitive answers about the effects of education, but they will be better prepared to formulate hypotheses which have both ideological and theoretical significance.[3]

Interpersonal Relationships and Growth and Development

The *Handbook of Research on Teaching* of the American Educational Research Association lists over 100 monographs, articles, and books on social interaction in the classroom. These range from the beginnings of sociodrama[4] to more recent inquiries into the climate in which learning takes place.[5] Clearly, the interaction process and the individual study of children have captured the interest of many administrators and teachers.

Normal Development. Films have been made showing normal development of children and adolescents which are used by students in teacher training institutions and by teachers in in-service workshops; they include "The Terrible Twos," "The Trusting Threes," "The Age of Turmoil," etc. In addition there is much material, including films, monographs, and books, on abnormal behavior, such as the film "Shyness" and the book *The Fifty Minute Hour.* Alternatives have been suggested, some based on experimentation and research, some on inference and intuition, and some on "common sense." Volumes which show the influence of child growth and development on discipline are also available: Baruch's *New Ways of Discipline* and Hymes' *Behavior and Misbehavior.* Hymes analyzes the problem diagnostically and succinctly this way:

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[3] Sidney I. Perloe, "Refined Prejudice," Review of Charles Herbert Stember, *Education and Attitude Change* (New York: Institute of Human Relations Press, 1961), in *Contemporary Psychology*, Vol. 7 (June, 1962), p. 204.

[4] J. L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive?* (Washington: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company, 1934).

[5] R. K. White and R. O. Lippitt, *Autocracy and Democracy: An Essay in Experimental Inquiry* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960).

> How, then, do you teach discipline?
>
> Not through some one pet, personal method: "I always reason with them." "I keep them in after school."
>
> Not through gentleness in and of itself: "I talk everything over with my children." And not through harshness either: "My paddle is my stand-by. They know I won't put up with any foolishness."
>
> Not through passivity — "They'll outgrow it" — or rigidity — "You just cannot let bad habits start."
>
> No one way is always good in general, nothing always bad. . . .
>
> Only one rule is constant: *You must determine the cause, and your action must be consistent with the cause. . . .*[6]

Disturbed Children. Unfortunately all of these studies have not been translated into practical application as often as might be supposed. One reason may be that some administrators as well as some teachers have not been familiar with them. But it is probably more realistic to say that when student behavior does not conform to preconceived ideas, prejudices and antipathies are aroused which are difficult to examine rationally and diagnostically. We might analyze four characteristics that are common to emotionally disturbed children, one or more of which show up in their behavior. As we examine them it should become apparent that they are likely to be offensive and to irritate people holding middle-class, "nice" values.

First, the disturbed child may have a tendency either *to overeat* or *to suffer from an almost complete loss of appetite* (anorexia). The former is applicable to both boys and girls; the latter is usually confined to girls. In either case parents and teachers become uneasy; they ask the overeater not to eat so much and try to get the undereater to eat a little more. Since it is impossible to force people to eat except as they wish, other than feeding them intravenously, the youngster soon perceives that he has a perverse kind of control over the situation. In his desire to express hostility, he uses this device to threaten and embarrass the adults around him. This problem, however, rarely comes to the attention of the administrator.

Second, the disturbed child may either *"act out" excessively* or *withdraw and*

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[6] James L. Hymes, Jr., *Behavior and Misbehavior* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), pp. 139–140.

become too silent. In the former case he is constantly disrupting his home or the class, asking embarrassing questions, making strange noises, and doing things that annoy the parent, the teacher, and the administrator. Here again the basic approach is to limit him arbitrarily by eliminating him from the group and/or to try to teach him to become quiet and withdraw. Interestingly, the overly withdrawn child is not as often seen as a problem although students of behavior tell us that such a person may be even more seriously damaged. However, because he seems to raise no difficulty in his social contacts, scant attention is paid to his growing loneliness and alienation from the group. Actually, children are often encouraged to engage in this kind of behavior, erroneously confused with contemplation and quiet study.

The disrupting, "acting-out" student is one of the building administrator's most demanding problems, involving, as it does, principals, vice-principals, deans, parents, and not too infrequently outside agencies. Studies examining the ways school administrators spend their time would, we believe, show a startling amount allocated to this problem. If the time were translated into money, the amount would also be impressive.

Third, younger children *may lack control of bodily functions;* older children *may develop physical ills.* In the very young some of the same ills appear that often develop in older children. Infants have been known to have asthma and ulcers. Here again the child has assumed some control of his environment — a destructive control, it is true, but control, nevertheless. The adult is frustrated and seeks through admonition and threat and reward and punishment to see to it that the child "learns to behave as he should."

Fourth, another activity particularly distressing to teachers, administrators, and middle-class parents is the *refusal to learn.* Despite all the teacher's techniques and all his skills, the child refuses to learn to read. Despite obvious intelligence, he does not learn his arithmetic. Thus he challenges the school in one of its deepest commitments, for the school is committed to the premise that it can teach almost everyone reading, writing, and arithmetic. Not uncommonly teachers and administrators are able to understand the first three difficulties but completely lose objectivity with this one. It is as though a client were telling an attorney how little law he knows, a patient telling a doctor what a poor physician he is — acts which can be infuriating indeed! But in view of the fact that these children are disturbed, as a patient might be, what else is to be expected?

Perhaps the reason for all of this lies in the fact that the disturbed child has had much failure in life. His social distance from his parents somehow deprived him of the kinds of love he needed. The school tended to confirm this failure by creating more social distance as he failed in the school environment. In some instances the discriminatory practices mentioned above, both in the society at large and in the school, reinforced his feelings of alienation. If he chooses one or more of the four ways of behaving described above, he reduces his social distance in a very perverse way, for immediately things begin to happen to him. However punitive people become, they do focus attention upon him, except in the case of the withdrawn child, who may through a triggering incident collapse, whereupon society will become concerned with his "nervous breakdown" and social distance will be reduced.[7]

Ironically, "normal" adults and children also display this kind of behavior. An anxiety-ridden situation may cause an individual to overeat temporarily. A graduate student may "act out" in a boring class in sheer frustration. Certainly men involved in highly competitive occupations sometimes develop asthma and ulcers, and we have seen brilliant students so disillusioned with learning that they have cut short their education.

The problem of the administrator, then, is so to organize his school that the interaction between teacher and pupil and between administrator and teacher takes account of some of the things that have been mentioned throughout this book. Let us contrast two kinds of structures – the most prevalent one, which, for the most part, has a tendency to overlook these matters, and the one existing in some schools, which, for the most part, tries to put them to use.

THE RIGID INDIVIDUAL-DIFFERENCES APPROACH

For some time education and administration have concentrated on the concept of individual differences. This was an important discovery of the child growth and development group in educational psychology. It involved the recognition of differences in intelligences, in ability to assimilate knowledge, in perception and cognition, as well as in socioeconomic, racial, and religious backgrounds. Indeed, knowledge of differences in age levels and differences in maturation rates modified practices in the field of education substantially.

Unfortunately, the attempt to translate individual differences into administrative decisions on the curriculum and guidance resulted in an approach characterized by "rugged individualism" rather than the notion of the normality of individual differences. The normal reading range of three years in a given grade has been interpreted by many to mean that those who are a year below are "retarded," those who are at grade level are "average," and those who are a year ahead are "superior." In fact, teachers and administrators often regard the 90 IQ, not as normal, but as indicating relatively low intelligence.

Not only was this kind of "biased" individualism established, but often the common traits or universals mentioned elsewhere in this text were forgotten. Therefore, the essential humanness of each student or teacher was made subservient to his individualism as defined by his "success." In addition, the teacher's pupil personnel practices and interaction were judged on this premise, which only resulted in greater rigidities, often unconscious, in his own behavior.

Students were often seen as scores on intelligence tests, and mechanistic and arbitrary solutions to problems were suggested. Churn and McQueen[8] report the following for 55 students, Negro and Caucasian, who were matched.

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[7] Methods for reducing this perverse control and reducing social distance will be discussed later. See section on "The Personalized Approach," p. 341.

		Negro	*Caucasian*
Mean IQ		94.89	101.07
Sigma	6.18		
Diff.		13.08	13.67

Offhand a teacher or administrator whose approach is highly individualistic would see the Negro children as substantially lower in IQ than the Caucasian children. However, the difference has no statistical validity, even with regard to our present tests. The authors say, "Even though the IQ numbers appear significant, when compared statistically, the significance is of no value."

Since generally the five-year-old boy is approximately one year behind the five-year-old girl developmentally,[9] Henry F. Warnken recommended that boys enter school a year later than girls. But cultural "press" is a factor in this situation, and boys would be discriminated against because of something over which they have no control. The fact that boys later overtake and usually surpass girls in development would only mean that they would need to be accelerated then to compensate for their early retardation. They would probably be more discouraged and learn a distaste for the learning process itself. Many boys, placed in the slowest group in reading, experience early failure, which may in part account for the fact that English is often seen by boys as essentially a "feminine" course and poetry, they feel, is decidedly not in the male domain.[10]

Depersonalized Interaction

A depersonalized approach to interpersonal relations based upon test results and extrinsic factors in development may continue from kindergarten through the secondary school.

> At one point an administrator had a difficult time convincing a kindergarten teacher not to fail two five-year-old boys. Her feeling was that they "could not handle the curriculum." The fact that no test has yet been devised that can measure with any high degree of accuracy the academic ability of five-year-old youngsters seemed to have no effect. This teacher felt that they were just not "mature" enough, and no discussion could shake her conviction.

Academic Classification. Similar rigidity exists when children are classified administratively into the academic and non-academic groups at the high school level, with the first-class and second-class citizenship that goes with these two categories. The student who takes the so-called "difficult" academic course is seen as a cut above the student who takes the non-academic program. Obviously, this competitive setting has a tendency to discourage the non-academic student and at the same time may create a false feeling of adequacy in the academic student. False values may thus be established despite the fact that Bruner recommends

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[8] B. Churn and R. McQueen, "The Intelligence and Educational Achievement of a Matched Sample of White and Negro Students," *School and Society*, 88 (1960), 327.

[9] Henry F. Warnken, "Success in School in Relation to Sex and Age of Admission," written for the California School Psychologist and Psychometrist Association, 1960, p. 6.

[10] For further information on this subject see: Patricia Cayo Sexton, "Schools Are Emasculating Our Boys," *Saturday Review*, Vol. 48 (June 19, 1965), p. 57.

> . . . increasing the inherent interest of materials taught, giving the student a sense of discovery, translating what we have to say into the thought forms appropriate to the child, and so on. What this amounts to is developing in the child an interest in what he is learning, and with it an appropriate set of values about intellectual activity generally. Surely we shall not by presently conceivable reforms create a nation of devoted intellectuals, nor is it apparent that this should be the major guiding aim of our schools. Rather, if teaching is done well and what we teach is worth learning, there are forces at work in our contemporary society that will provide the external prod that will get children more involved in the process of learning than they have been in the past.[11]

Homogeneous Grouping. In the elementary school homogeneous groups may be designated by names like "The Yellow Buttercups" (the "X" group), "The Golden Bears" (the "Y" group), and "The Silver Jets" (the "Z" group), or there may merely be Groups 1, 2, and 3 in a reading program. But the student quickly understands at what level he has been placed. Russell and Fea state,

> . . . Research has demonstrated the following effects, which must be considered in evaluating groups: (1) If a group is failing, an individual member evaluates his own performance less accurately. (2) Failure causes a greater feeling of inadequacy if the individual identifies with the group. (3) If roles are not clear, the low-status individual feels ineffectual. (4) Group "cohesiveness" is increased by increasing the desirability of being a member of the group. (5) A highly cohesive group is less anxious but not necessarily more productive. (6) Failure reduces the cohesiveness of a group. (7) Cooperative situations usually lead to increased cohesiveness; competitive situations produce the opposite effect. (8) A group member will work for group rather than personal goals if he understands the nature of the group goals and how his behavior will help the group to attain them.[12]

In the high school such groups are called X, Y, and Z groups. An interesting study reported on English classes:

> Lazarus (1955) compared interest-grouping with ability-grouping by selecting special English classes on the basis of high ability or superior interest. The interest-

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[11] Reprinted by permission of the publishers from Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, Copyright, 1960, by the President and Fellows of Harvard College. P. 73.

[12] In N. L. Gage (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963), p. 912.

> selected group made higher scores on a standardized English test, read more books, and did more creative writing.[13]

Shane lists 36 grouping plans.[14] The fascinating thing about these plans is that they can be divided into three general kinds. The first grouping is for the teacher's benefit – grouping in order to facilitate the teacher's task. The second is for administrative expediency – grouping in order to make scheduling simpler, facilitate teacher assignment, etc. The third is to benefit the student. Obviously the only tenable reason for grouping is to assist the student.

The Rigid Discipline Approach

Another characteristic of rigidity is the discipline pattern found in schools of this type. Administrative decisions regarding discipline which are established in a rigid environment are set and ostensibly clear. Often they are implemented by such devices as citizenship grades and demerit systems (which one author calls "meritenship" as a satiric comment upon the word "citizenship"). Although somewhat in disfavor, student courts and hall guards still exist – the hall guards being armed with tickets similar to those used by the police for traffic violations. Another device that is not uncommon is the detention system – keeping students who break the rules after school.

One of the unfortunate results of all of these arrangements is that, not only are they antithetical to democratic premises as indicated in Section A, but psychologically they have the effect of hurting the neurotic youngster who needs help and often overlooking the psychopathic student who is "smooth" enough to get by untouched. It is not unusual for a maladjusted child to have so many detentions that there aren't enough school days in the year for him ever to serve them all. The same unhappy students come before the student court time and time again. Yet, those who might profit by some anxiety feelings often can fit into this kind of arbitrary system.

Of even greater significance is the fact that the normal child sits in judgment on his peers or watches as other students are subjected to this treatment. He may feel intuitively that many of these children need assistance, but he has to harden himself to accepting the official procedure.[15]

The toughening process not only destroys his intuitive empathy but also reduces his opportunity for developing a social conscience. Without social conscience as one of the essential goals of education respect for the dignity of others declines. The child must, as it were, wash his hands of responsibility for other students and develop an attitude of indifference toward what he may feel to be an injustice. It is hardly any wonder that under such conditions the administrator-teacher-pupil relationship becomes a divisive one in which the administrator and teacher are on one side of the fence and the pupil is on the other.

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[13] *Ibid.*, p. 913.

[14] Harold G. Shane, "An Annotated List of 36 Grouping Plans," unpublished monograph, 1962.

[15] On the importance of intuitive thinking we would like to quote Bruner: "Through intuitive thinking the individual may often arrive at solutions to problems which he would not achieve at all, or at best more slowly, through analytic thinking." *Op. cit.*

Punitive Measures. The rigid administrative philosophy spills over into the assignments made to other administrators, to counselors, and to teachers. There is no attempt to share responsibility. Rather, duties are carefully outlined, and each person knows his task. This situation is all the more tragic in view of the fact that even if we assumed that 20 per cent of 2,000 high school students needed personal contact of an ongoing nature, we would have only 400. If they were shared among 60 or 70 of the teachers employed in this large school, each teacher would be responsible for not more than six or seven children. Twenty per cent is a high ratio of disturbance, but with decentralization this would not be too much of a burden. Yet with arbitrary assignments, usually the deans, both boys' and girls', are charged with discipline: the punitive kind.

Day after day the dean of boys or the dean of girls metes out punishment to children. Such a job does not make this person particularly popular. Not only do the students dislike the person administering the punishment, but the sensitive dean suffers as a consequence, for he is not engaged in the teaching for which he is prepared. Despite the fact that he is on the first rung of the ladder of success as an administrator, he may develop a real antipathy toward the job and toward himself. Should he enjoy this kind of task, one would have a hard time justifying his holding the position or even his being promoted.

The students' aversion to this kind of approach was well illustrated recently when 200 boys marched in protest upon the dean of boys in a large urban high school. Only after much argument and discussion was the group finally disbanded. However, one wonders what latent hostilities are developed in a program like this — hostilities which sooner or later must find an outlet.

Discipline in the Elementary School. At the elementary level, the principal is the disciplinarian, and when he sees his role as a punitive one he, too, is perceived with antipathy by the youngsters. One of our students writing a thesis collected responses to the questions, What do our principals do? What is their job?[16] Some second-grader answered in the following fashion:

1. Punishes kids that do things wrong.
2. Tells parents when children are naughty.
3. Whips naughty kids.
4. Spanks bad people.
5. Owns the school.

[16] Deloy Barrus, "The Stated Opinions of Selected Elementary School Children: Their Perception of the Role of the School Principal," unpublished M.A. thesis, Sacramento State College, 1965.

6. Watches people who do things wrong.
7. Watches the yard for trouble.
8. Swats kids who are bad.

Other second-graders answered quite differently – in a more friendly way:

1. He looks out for kids in trouble and helps them.
2. Helps injured children.
3. Buys paper, pencils and supplies.
4. Talks to children if they need this.
5. Explains the use of new equipments.
6. Helps kids understand life.

It is notable that the same range of perception, from the punitive to the understanding, is in evidence when children describe what the principal does as a supervisor of teachers. In the punitive sphere:

1. Tells teachers what to do.
2. Sees the teachers teach what they should.
3. Makes rules for teachers.
4. Tells teachers what they can't do.
5. Checks on noisy classrooms.
6. Makes rules for kids and teachers.

In the more accepting sense:

1. Takes care of the business.
2. Checks the good work in the room.
3. Pays teachers.
4. Gets good teachers.

What is most enlightening is that children in the primary grades have already developed sensitivities which are related, whether realistically or not, to the function of the administrator. Their discernment certainly emphasizes the importance of the administrative role and, further, of the task which the administrator assumes as his primary responsibility. The task that he assigns himself is based on his philosophical premises, and it is these premises of which students become aware.

Examples of Rigid Grouping

Task Assignment in the High Schools. Teachers in the typical high school are confronted by 150 students a day and on the whole have very little identification with any specific small group unless they develop it independently. The problem of course, is not as great in the elementary school since the classroom is usually self-contained. Here rapport between the teacher and the pupil is more easily established. High school administrative practice is ordinarily to schedule both the student and the teacher so rigidly that each is caught in a compulsive whirlwind of activities and can hardly get to know each other. In fact, the line and staff authority is so organized that the teacher sends the student to the counselor under certain conditions and to the proper dean under others, while he himself does "nothing but teach."

The Ungraded Primary. In order to reduce some of the pressures induced by rigid scheduling, certain specialized kinds of groups have been set up which, by hypothesis, are artificial and discriminatory. *The ungraded primary* is a thinly disguised attempt to take into consideration different rates of maturation. Students may go through the first three years (Grades 1–3) in four semesters, six semesters, or eight semesters. However, close examination indicates that this is only another way of forming X, Y, and Z groups. Regardless of what label is placed upon a program, chances are that the students who compete the three grades in four semesters will be seen as the most successful while those who complete the program in eight semesters will be regarded as failures. Yet it has been made clear over and over again in this book and by educational psychologists that such range of development is perfectly normal. Should the procedure then be the more punitive for some normal students than for others?

Special Groups. Similar discriminatory groups are made up of the mentally retarded, the gifted, and the delinquent. It is noteworthy that some of these groups, particularly the mentally retarded and the delinquent, are legally restricted to no more than 12 to 15. This limit is being proposed also for the gifted. Actually, if a person wishes personalized service he needs to be gifted or mentally retarded or delinquent. He probably would also get considerable service if he were a behavior problem. It is the normal child who lacks individual attention.

Interestingly, the cost of special programs averages three or four times that of the ordinary program. If we were to group for heterogeneity and pay three or four times whenever one of the exceptional children was placed in a class by removing three or four of the other children, we could reduce most class sizes to 18 or 20 and so give everyone, including the normal child and many teachers, opportunities for the personalized interaction in the learning process to which all are entitled.

The Personalized Approach

The personalized approach is characterized by many of the premises which were enunciated in Section A. In other words, instead of considering the importance of differences in the personalized approach, the significance of the individual is paramount, and all groups are set up to keep it so. Therefore, heterogeneity is in order, not only to encourage the acceptance of diversity but to encourage recognition of the usefulness of diversity. When heterogeneity is organized carefully, individual dignity is maintained since each person has some meaning for every other person. Some of the differences between the personalized approach and the rigid approach are shown in the following:

Personalized Approach	*Rigid Approach*
1. Self-interest.	1. Selfishness.
2. Structure to assist others.	2. Structure to simplify task for self.
3. Emphasis on common traits of all people.	3. Emphasis on the differences among people.
4. Use of differences to enrich all.	4. Use of differences to structure and classify.
5. Deepening of the service to and with others and of the social conscience.	5. Service *at* others with an attendant shallow social conscience.

To illustrate the growth of a social conscience we present the following:

> In a certain school district, student tutors were used to help other students. At the outset the student tutors were given the Kuder Vocational Preference Test. After a semester's time they were given the same test. Seventy per cent of them had risen in social service. Only one had dropped. What struck the examiner as an important gain was the fact that helping other children had helped the tutors develop greater social insights and a greater social conscience.

As Lane and Beauchamp say, ". . . Divergence enriches [the individual's] group experiences, for he learns to work with a variety of temperaments, capacities, and interests and is learning how to plan, to compile, to demonstrate a skill, to work with machinery."[17]

But the dignity of the individual also involves his right to independence and therefore his right not only to participate in heterogeneous groups but to work creatively by himself. B. Frank Brown describes both the grouping and "ungrouping" in this way:

> In the nongraded school, the curriculum is recognized to meet individual rather than group needs. The nongraded pattern is structured to accommodate individual progress. This is accomplished by planning for much of a youngster's time to be spent in solitary rather than group learning situations. The intent here is to make individual learning attractive and exciting so that each youngster will no longer be afflicted with groupism. Under these conditions, education becomes both grouped and ungrouped. Since independent study will be the individual's approach to learning for fifty years after he graduates from college, or otherwise discontinues his formal education, he will do well to begin this process in high school.
>
> At Melbourne we are careful to limit the amount of time that a student can spend in Independent Study. There is a danger of the scholarly or creative student becoming so isolated that he disassociates himself from the general student body. This is undesirable, for his intellectual leadership is needed as a leavening agent for the rest of the school.[18]

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[17] Howard Lane and Mary Beauchamp, *Human Relations in Teaching* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), p. 312.

[18] From the book, *The Non Graded High School*, by B. Frank Brown. © 1963 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey. Pp. 100–101.

The "School Within a School"

One way of organizing a high school to personalize relationships is for the administration to "decentralize" the large urban school. In the "school within a school" the emphasis changes. The dean in some districts becomes a "unit dean," who administers a small high school of 500 students within the larger

Figure 20

THE UNIT PLAN (PLAN 1: A HIGH SCHOOL UNIT PLAN)

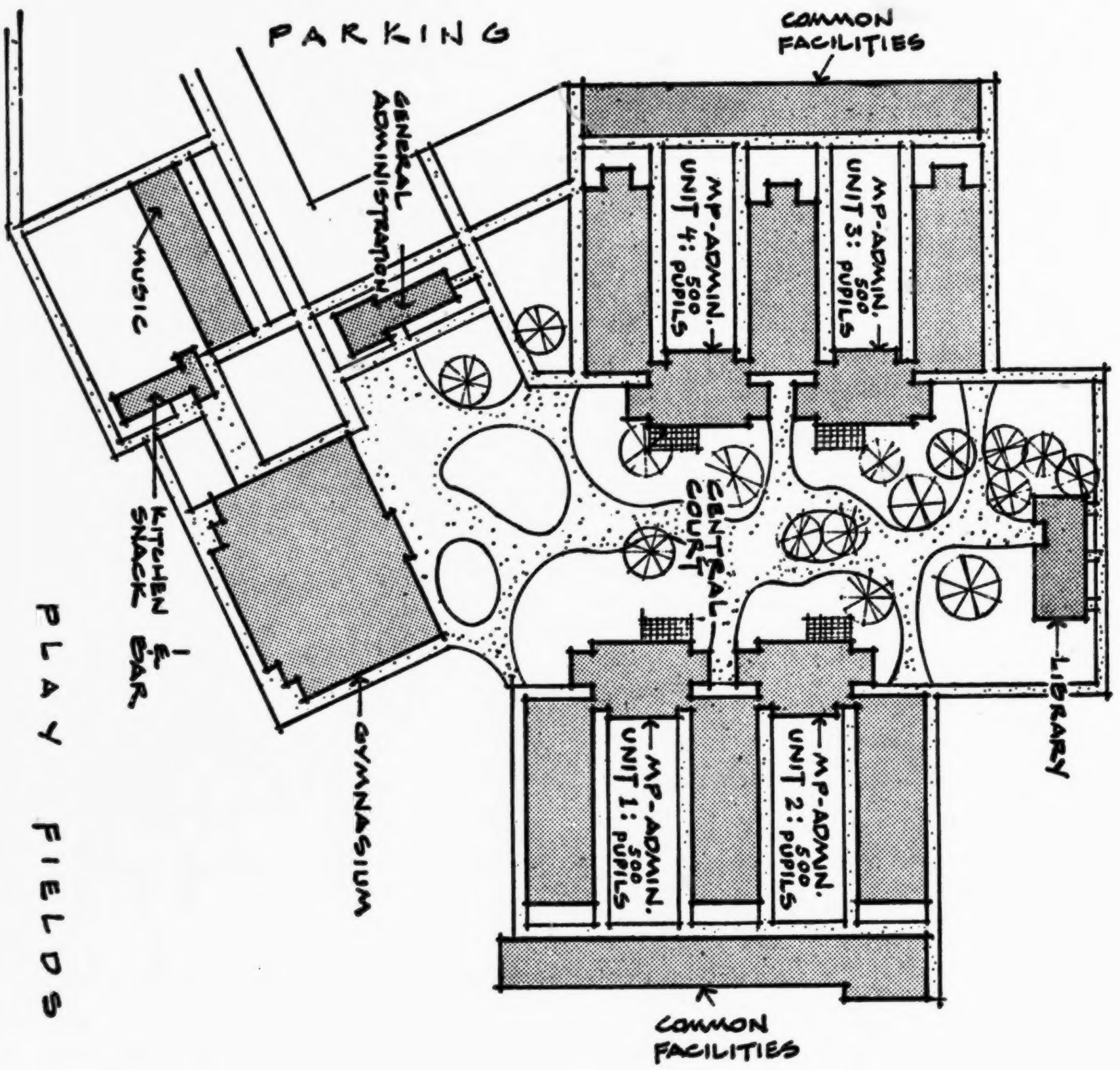

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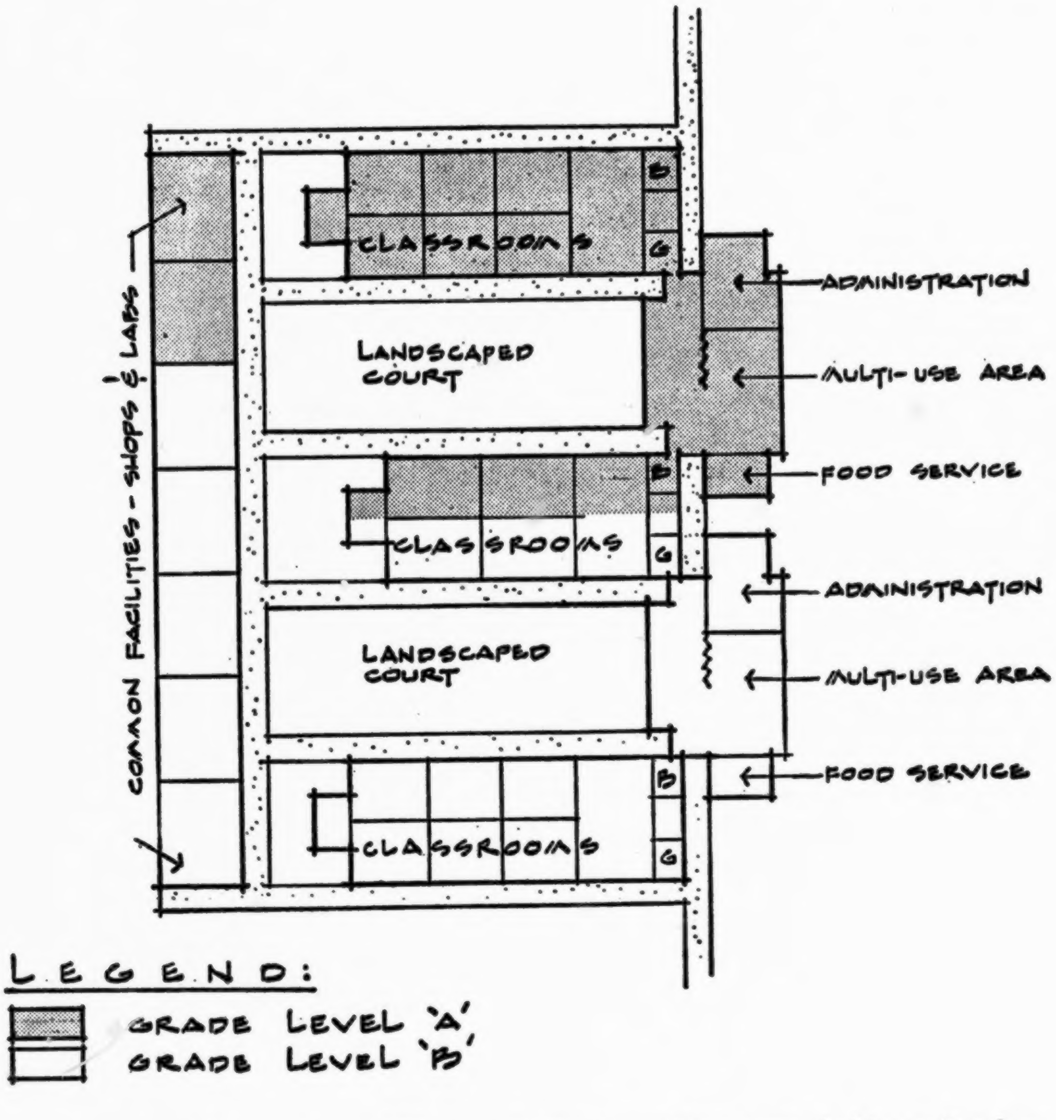
Figure 21

THE UNIT PLAN (PLAN 1, CONTINUED: DETAIL OF A SINGLE UNIT)

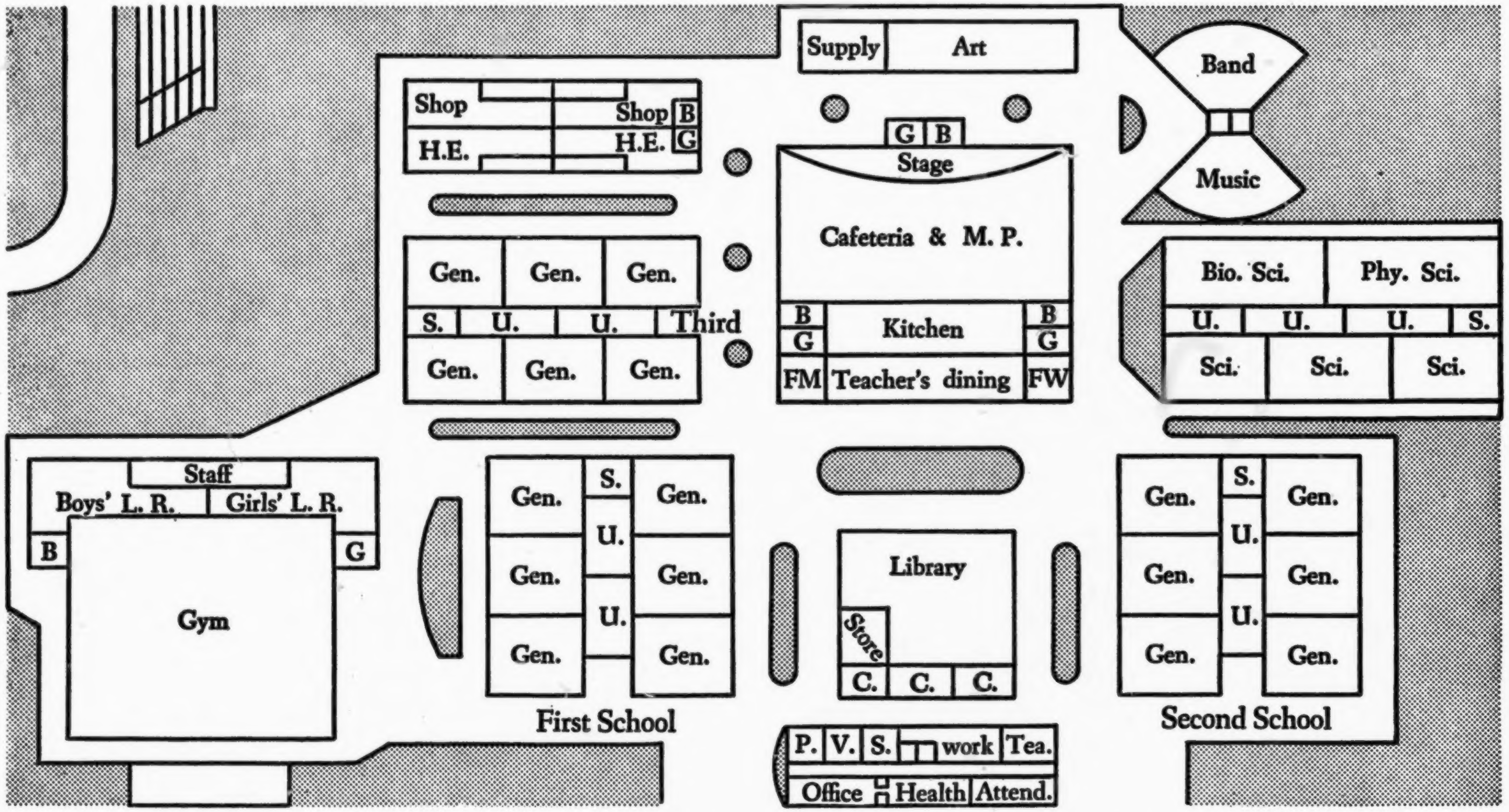


Reprinted by permission of Neptune & Thomas and Associates, Architects, Pasadena, California.

high school of 1,500 or 2,000 students (Figures 20, 21, 22). Naturally his task becomes much more diversified. He is no longer the person meting out punishment but is now a vice-principal assuming responsibility for an entire unit, and his interaction with students has many pleasant and positive factors that are almost out of the question when he is charged only with carrying out punitive measures.

Figure 22

THE UNIT PLAN (PLAN 2: A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL UNIT PLAN)



From Gene Starns, "The Junior High School," unpublished educational specifications for a graduate seminar, Sacramento State College, 1964.

In this kind of environment counselors are assigned to each unit, and while there may be only two counselors to a unit, so that each has 250 students, it is still possible to focus more personalized attention upon the student. The unit is intimate and small, and deans and counselors can be seen as an administrative cadre working together to help both students and teachers.

In a like manner, the teachers of the basic courses, i.e., English, history, mathematics, etc., have the opportunity of meeting these 500 students for three or four years. Thus they can get to know them better and to develop a better rapport with most of them. The result is more adequate teacher-counseling and more empathic teacher-pupil interaction. This does not mean, however, that the students do not have opportunities for moving outside of these areas. There are a number of units that must be shared with other students of the other "schools": the shop, the library, the gymnasium, etc. However, this is only a return to the old "form" idea that prevailed in the English academy or the college idea that prevailed in the English university. The difference from the form idea is that the unit embraces the three or four grades that are designated as high school or the two or three now called the junior high school. There is some argument about this scheme of organization; some administrators feel that it is easier to administer the units if each contains a single grade, i.e., if each is a ninth-grade unit, a tenth-grade unit, etc. But a number of important human factors are overlooked in this argument: (1) Grade levels eliminate any possibility of intramural sports between the schools for all practical purposes; obviously the senior unit would have a great advantage over the others. (2) They promote a hierarchical notion which would result in the seniors' feeling superior to the juniors, etc. (3) They hamper the possibility of the older teenager's helping the younger. (4) They destroy the principle of unity because of diversity ordinarily.

The only advantage the single-grade unit would have is that it might be somewhat simpler to administer. But this is a weak argument since the school is not created to serve the administrator. Awkward as some of the ambiguities may be in the unit involving the ninth or tenth to twelfth grades, the reasons for heterogeneity are far more important than the single reason for homogeneity.

The Multi-Graded Elementary School

At the elementary level assignments may be defined, not as ungraded, but as multi-graded. Thus in a number of schools Grades 1,2,3 are in one classroom, 2,3,4 in another classroom, 3,4,5 in still another, 4,5,6 in still another. With this type of organization, the student proceeds at his own pace even though he remains in his proper grade. He may be in the second or fourth grade academically although he is in the third grade in accordance with his age. There is no discrimination in terms of success and failure since the normal range of three years in achievement exists in every class. In this sense each classroom represents the beginnings of individualized study, with each student moving at his own pace. The reactions of the parents of students in one multi-grade school (Sierra-Enterprise, Sacramento County, California) follow:

Results of a Questionnaire Sent to Parents of Each Family with One or More Children in the Multi-Graded Classrooms

132 questionnaires sent out; 97 returned

5 out of 6 parents feel their children are taking more responsibility for doing their school work.

2 out of 3 say they do not have to pressure their child to do his best in school work.

4 out of 5 think their child has benefited as a result of being in a smaller class.

9 out of 10 say they are happy with the progress of their child in a multi-grade class.

7 out of 8 say their child is happy with his class group.

3 out of 4 believe their children have learned from being with older and younger children in the class.

7 out of 8 think the multi-grade groups have provided better for differences in children.

4 out of 5 say they would like to have the multi-grade groups continued.

4 out of 5 feel their children have shown more improvement in the three R's than they would have in a straight grade.

A difficulty with such a program is that in a class of 25 or 30 one may have 25 or 30 individual groups. Actually a number of things may be done to alleviate this situation. (1) It is possible to use accelerated students to assist those who are moving more slowly. (2) It is possible to subgroup in terms of achievement within the classroom. (3) The teacher does not have to check each person's work every day but may do so only once or twice a week. Naturally, the best solution would be to reduce class sizes, for through this kind of relationship the teacher has an optimal opportunity to establish a love of learning.[19]

Some General Statements

Still another way the administrator might organize the schools for better teacher-pupil relationships is through the use of *team teaching* (see Chapter 21).

It would be desirable even in the kindergarten to have a larger class and a man and woman teaching it. Enough is known about role identification for the educator to recognize that it is important to boys and girls to meet with both male and female teachers in their early formative years. The schoolmaster was not uncommon in early American history although we seem to have returned to the dame school for the primary grades. Very often the elementary pupil waits until the fifth or sixth grade before he encounters his first male teacher. The problem becomes all the more pressing since fathers' tasks today take them away from their homes and from their children more and more.

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[19] Some sources of information: John I. Goodlad and Robert H. Anderson, *The Non-graded Elementary School* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1959), describe early attempts at new ways of grouping. We know better ways of providing for continuous growth than are supplied in their book, however. For excellent information write to Mrs. Mildred Sorenson, Director of Instruction, Appleton, Wisconsin, Public Schools.

In a personalized approach, administrators should see to it that pupil control involves *few rules and much flexibility.* We have discussed the sharing of problem children, but as each teacher assumes some responsibility for counseling children with whom he comes in contact, all the children then, including those in the "normal" category, will have a better opportunity for the kinds of interaction that will help them to perceive themselves and the world more realistically.

It may appear that if only a few rules are used the entire gamut of behavior cannot be covered. However, one rule, the Golden Rule, is difficult enough for any person to follow and certainly could place disciplinary limits upon behavior. We have seen a school operate successfully on two rules:

1. It is wrong for one to hurt himself deliberately, because he is important.
2. It is wrong for a person to hurt others deliberately, because they are important.

These are only a modification of the Golden Rule. Deliberate hurting of oneself can be seen as involving F's as well as physical hurt. Sarcasm directed toward others as well as physical violence and all acts deliberately destructive of self or of others are also hurtful. The world "deliberately" is worthy of note, for many times it is impossible to prevent pain and frustration from occurring. This, too, is as it should be, for frustration is part of life itself, as Bettelheim says:

> . . . [Frustration] makes the slower learners anxious. Perhaps it does. But how do anxieties become manageable? Through a friendly working relationship with those who we feel are superior — in this case, in mountain climbing, you would obviously welcome proficient climbers in your party. In mountain climbing the experts usually distribute themselves among the beginners, who are placed in the center of the group. If the beginner has an expert behind him, the likelihood is great that he will learn quickly and well. However, if we put all the good climbers in one party and all the poor ones in another and expect all of them to make the perilous ascent to adult maturity, we virtually insure that our second group will stumble badly or perish altogether. If teamwork is there, we can afford to put the awkward among the skillful, and as likely as not, all will succeed. What worries me about classes for the gifted is that the good mountain climbers will stop feeling any ties or obligation to those they have left far below.[20]

A Proposed Decentralized School to Stress Personalized Relationships

One of the urgent problems faced by the high school today is that of making it possible for every teen-ager to have an ongoing counseling relationship with an adult. In our culture the teen-ager, seeking independence and yet being dependent, does not wish to ask his parents for advice. Still his ability to make choices and decisions is limited, and he needs much assistance during the years from 12 to 17. The large numbers of counselees which the average counselor has militates against an optimal relationship.

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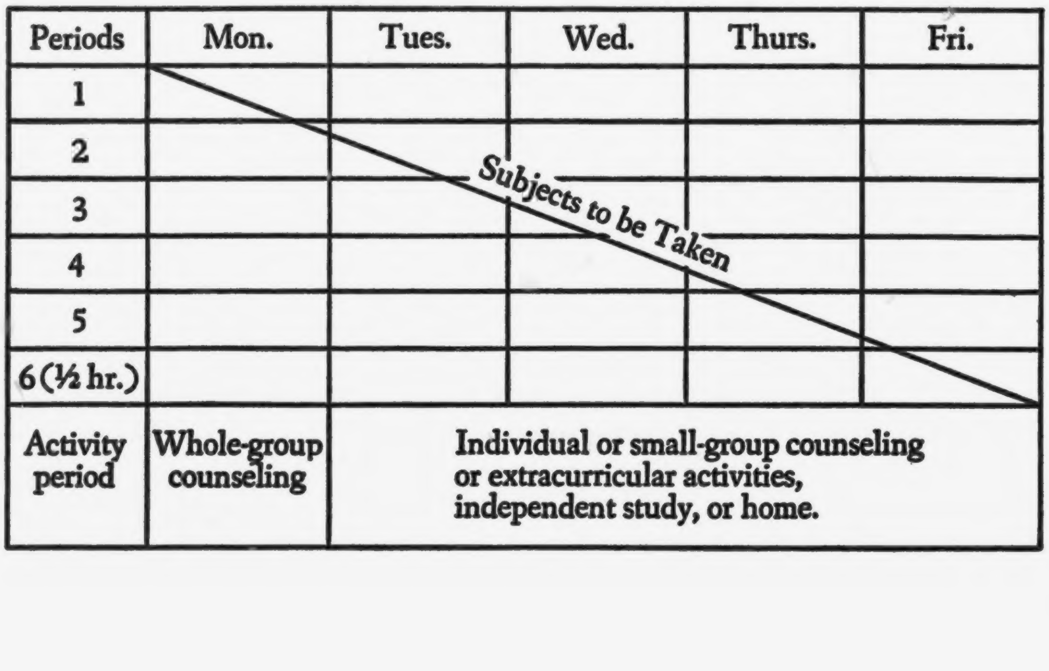
[20] Bruno Bettelheim, "Stop Pampering Gifted Children," *The Saturday Evening Post,* 237th Year, Issue No. 14 (April 11, 1964), pp. 8–10. Reprinted by permission.

Let us suggest a possible solution. Organizing a "school within a school" of 500 students immediately reduces the pressure of the large metropolitan high school. The pupil-teacher ratio, including administrators and counselors, will be about 25 to 1, which means that there will be 20 teachers in the school. Now a third of these or approximately seven will be assigned or will have volunteered for activities such as dramatics, coaching, chorus, etc. They also may be functioning in the generalized program of the entire school. This leaves 13 teachers, two of them counselors and one a dean. Dividing the 10 remaining teachers into the 500 students we arrive at 50 students to be assigned to each teacher acting as a teacher-counselor. In order to maintain the diversity of this group, it would include 12 freshmen, 12 sophomores, 13 juniors, and 13 seniors. The juniors could be assigned as student sponsors to the freshmen and the seniors as student sponsors for the sophomores. The teacher-counselor would graduate 12 or 13 each year and get 12 or 13 new students, not an excessive number and one which he could handle.

These students would meet as a group once a week during the last half-hour period, designated as an "activity period." The other four days would be reserved for individual and small-group counseling, including vocational counseling, by the teacher-counselor. The schedule would look something like Figure 23.

Figure 23

A REORGANIZATION PLAN FOR GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL COUNSELING


Subjects to be Taken

Periods	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6 (½ hr.)					
Activity period	Whole-group counseling	Individual or small-group counseling or extracurricular activities, independent study, or home.			

In order to help the teacher-counselor become more sophisticated in counseling techniques, the two counselors would work with five of the teacher-counselors, who would become members of their cadre. If a preparation period were available, these five would meet with each other teacher-counselor at regular intervals as part of an in-service training program. If this were not possible, they could set aside one day a week of the activity period for such a meeting.

The counselors would also have a counseling group of their own, composed of the children who had special problems more difficult than those the teacher-counselors were prepared to handle. We might assume that about 10 per cent out of each 50 pupils would have such difficulty. Each counselor, then would have a heterogeneous group of 25. If the percentage were higher, his group would be larger. But it is difficult to imagine that it would be above 20 per cent, and thus his group could never exceed 50. The teacher-counselor groups could then drop to between 40 and 45. The special-problem groups would meet with the counselors once a week as a whole, the other days being reserved for individual and small-group counseling. The dean, or administrative head of the unit, would not only supervise the entire program but accept those cases from the

Figure 24

A Proposed Organization of Counseling Groups

Members of the Staff Involved	Nature and Members of Groups	Number of Groups	Total Number in Each Group
Dean (1)	Group consists of 2–5 Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors, Seniors. ↑ ⇣	1	10–20
Counselors (2)	Each group consists of 5–10 Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors referred by Teacher-Counselors. ↑ ⇣	2	30–40
Teacher-Counselors (10)	Each group consists of: 10–12 Freshmen 10–12 Sophomores 10–12 Juniors 10–12 Seniors.	10	40–50

⟶ indicates referral for additional services
---> indicates referral to original group

two counselors that were most difficult on the assumption that he had more experience and greater training. Thus a referral system would evolve which would look something like Figure 24.

Individual and small-group counseling would take precedence over any other group activity such as extracurricular activities. However, when a student was not involved in counseling, he could join any activity that interested him, i.e., athletics, dramatics, chorus, clubs, etc. Or certain rooms — perhaps the library — could be set aside for independent study. If it seemed desirable the student could go home.

It is obvious that such a program could provide some valuable outcomes:

1. Each child would have a teacher-counselor or counselor to whom he could go for counsel.
2. The program, being continuous for a three- or four-year period, would establish fairly permanent relationships.
3. The problem of excessive numbers would be solved. (Actually as the school increased in size the number in each counseling group would be reduced, for there would be more teacher-counselors available.)

This program is really an adaptation of the old homeroom setup, with considerable modification and with greater application of sociological and psychological insights. It is assumed that the counselors would be highly trained, full-time counselors and that the dean would have been trained first as a counselor and then as an administrator. The entire idea is based not upon harsh discipline or overly permissive counseling but upon integrated service as it is needed by the student — service which is grounded in reality and research and oriented in the direction Bettelheim suggests:

> When the children now entering school will be grown up, the scientific revolution will be largely behind them. Ahead will lie a psychological revolution. What is sorely lacking in our education — and will have to stand at the heart of our efforts in the future — is the education of the emotions, an education which will permit people to live at peace with themselves and others.
>
> In this kind of education, giftedness is totally irrelevant, because if the issue is to know oneself, it matters little how fast one learns to read or count. While the talent to push ahead of others develops early, and while schooling can be pushed, it takes a child a great deal of time to develop insight into himself. Learning how to help others to live a good life comes only slowly.[21]

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[21] *Ibid.*, p. 10. Reprinted by permission.

21

The Administrator and the Curriculum

The most important single postulate for the administrator to keep in mind if he is to encourage interaction on curriculum development is the following: ***The curriculum is a tool, to be adjusted first to the needs of the student and second to the needs of the teacher.*** While this appears obvious, the usual practice is a lockstep approach to curriculum: the student moves automatically through a program predetermined by the school, regardless of his interests, maturity, or needs. In fact it is not uncommon for the curriculum to be adjusted to teachers' interests and skills rather than to student needs or goals. This may not always be undesirable, for certain teacher proficiencies may encourage student motivation. But when it becomes the most important objective, it makes student needs subordinate to teacher needs and thus may fail to establish a readiness for learning and for intellectual development. Bruner observes,

> . . . The intellectual development of the child is no clock work sequence of events; it also responds to influences from the environment, notably the school environment. Thus instruction . . . , even at the elementary level need not follow slavishly the natural course of cognitive development in the child. It can also lead intellectual development by providing challenging but usable opportunities for the child to forge ahead in his development.[1]

SOME CONFLICTS REGARDING THE CURRICULUM

There are three fundamental conflicts of long standing regarding the purposes of curriculum.

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[1] Reprinted by permission of the publishers from Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education,* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, Copyright, 1960, by the President and Fellows of Harvard College. P. 39.

The Curriculum as an End or as a Means

One of these might be called the conflict of *the curriculum as an end or as a means.* It is evidenced in many theories, including those held by the founding fathers of the country as well as those of the early psychologists. There was a constant question whether introducing intellectual and literary pursuits into the curriculum resulted in intellectual and insightful citizens. The controversy reached its culmination in "faculty psychology" – the idea that pursuits which encouraged intellectual discipline and developed the individual for scholarly living also insured his success as an adult.

In contrast to this, the idea of the curriculum as a means suggested that school was a preparation for life and that the curriculum should prepare the individual for some useful occupation. Therefore, the curriculum was only a means to a productive and useful life.

A distinction arose between the pragmatic approach of engaging in useful activities and the academic approach of following more philosophical and intellectual activities. At present an integrated solution to this problem is appearing. We cannot subscribe to the notion that the curriculum is an end in itself. If it were, then the curriculum alone, without any direction on the part of insightful and inspirational teachers, would provide the way by which students could automatically understand and apply values commensurate with the democratic way of life.

Such is not the case. If reading were an end in itself, an accomplished reader with no sense of direction might become a dedicated follower of the values expressed in *Mein Kampf*, or in contrast, a dedicated follower of the Declaration of Independence. There is almost as much literature today which is anti-Negro and anti-Caucasian as there is integrative literature which seeks reasonable and democratic solutions to racial problems. The ability to read only enables readers to read. It does not necessarily help them sort out solutions that are reasonable, evolutionary, and enhancing of the democratic way of life. Similarly, knowledge of physics may lead to destruction of all or plenty for all.

The knowledge itself is not sufficient. So we are left with the fact that curriculum is really a means and that the maturity and understanding of the student is the end to be sought. However, this does not mean that intellectual pursuits are not useful or that useful pursuits do not need to be intellectual. The skillful administrator helps the teacher to integrate the two ideas.

> One hears often the distinction between "doing" and "understanding." It is a distinction applied to the case, for example, of a student who presumably understands a mathematical idea but does not know how to use it in computation. While the distinction is probably a false one – since how can one know what a student understands save by seeing what he does? – it points to an interesting difference in emphasis in teaching and in learning. Thus one finds in some of the classic books on the psychology of problem solving (such as Max Wertheimer's *Productive Thinking*) a sharp line drawn between "rote drill" and "understanding."

> *In point of fact drill need not be rote and, alas, emphasis on understanding may lead to verbal glibness.*[2]

We have italicized the last sentence for it seems to us to show that integration between the intellectual and the pragmatic can take place. It is up to the administrator and the teacher to see that a sense of excitement, of exploration, of intellectual stimulation, and of usefulness permeates the curriculum. Nila B. Smith, in a speech to Sacramento State College International Reading Association meeting, April 1964, indicated that much of the primary reading series concentrates almost exclusively on teaching reading and not enough of it leads children of six, seven, and eight to grapple with ideas that encourage them to reach and to contemplate. In our opinion this potential exists long before opportunities for its expression are provided. Mearns' *Creative Power* examined the creativity of children before school age (see Chapter 11). The newer approaches to the teaching of science indicate that "... much in it can be profitably taught at an inductive or intuitive level much earlier. Basic notions in these fields are perfectly accessible to children from seven to ten years of age providing that they are ... *studied through materials that the child can handle himself.*"[3]

Student-Centered Versus Subject-Centered Curriculum

Another ongoing conflict has been that of *the student-centered versus the subject-centered curriculum.* Like the one preceding, it is rooted in the kinds of pseudo-reality mentioned earlier. There is no curriculum without students. There are no teachers or administrators without students. Therefore, regardless of how the curriculum is organized, it is actually established to assist students. What is actually being discussed is not whether the curriculum is subject-centered or student-centered but who is responsible for the organization of the curriculum. The conflict resolves itself into whether the adult organizes the materials and pre-determines what is necessary for the youngster or whether the curriculum is set up according to what the student truly needs to experience.

This struggle, too, has a historical background. Man for some reason, possibly because his offspring have such a long and involved journey toward adulthood, seems to have accepted the idea that the adult must arbitrarily prescribe what is good for his children. This has taken various forms. Some cultures have been less harsh than others, but most of them have been quite rigid in their demands on children, and deviations from the appointed routes to maturity were not infrequently punished.

In more recent times, growth of the concept of the dignity of individuals, including children, and further exploration of the fact that all children have needs in common have encouraged more integrated approaches. When these things are taken into account, it is possible to construct a curriculum which places the subjects in their proper position. The adult's role has not been eliminated: it has been changed. The administrator now must examine the universal tasks that each adolescent or child must accomplish, as expressed, for example, in Havighurst's *Developmental Tasks.* He must also understand the range of needs of each student, well delineated in books on child growth and development and on educational psychology. Now his function begins to emerge. No longer can he arbitrarily set the respective paths for the upper-class youngster, the middle-class child, the workingman's son. He must consider the basic needs of all children and recognize that the range of differences exists in all of these groups. Trump and Baynham put it this way:

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[2] *Ibid.*, p. 29. Italics added. Reprinted by permission of the publishers from Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, Copyright, 1960, by the President and Fellows of Harvard College.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 43. Italics added.

> In tomorrow's schools, the points of entry to and exit from elementary, secondary, and higher schools will be determined by each student's mental and emotional maturity — his readiness to move on — and by his capacity for organized instruction. This will require professional decision. Today's decisions; . . . The curriculum will be divided into stages or steps not identified as years or grades, and without any fixed number. The rate of progress through school will be determined by the student's previous achievements and by his capacity to take the next step. His readiness to move on, again, will be gauged by professional decision and not by a test, a grade, or unit of credit. Has he assimilated as much skill, knowledge, and understanding in the present stage as can reasonably be expected of him? Such individual progress will be at different rates of speed in different subject areas, or different skills, or even at different times in the student's life.[4]

The adult is not denied his role as the person who helps to establish values, goals, and courses for the student. The character of the role has changed. Having the curriculum student-centered does not mean that the student is permitted in a somewhat anarchistic way to pick and choose whatever is expedient. Rather it suggests that the adult attempts to understand all students' universal needs and each student's individual needs. Thus, as a professional worker, the administrator is better able to prescribe those tasks to which the pupil must dedicate himself to establish both intellectual development and social usefulness. "Student-centered," as we define the term here, means that the curriculum is tailored to the needs of the students by the administrator and the teacher. In this way the curriculum becomes meaningful and the conflict disappears.

Predetermined Versus Experimental Curriculum

Finally, should there be ***a predetermined academic curriculum or an experimental curriculum?*** As has been indicated by many writers, including Bettelheim and Trump, in the predetermined curriculum the student is assigned to a curriculum pattern based primarily on his scores on standardized tests, that is, to an X, Y, or Z group, or an equivalent. At the high school level, he may be assigned in addition to different experiences which are purported to relate to these scores, i.e., the academic sequence, the business sequence, or the trade and industrial-homemaking sequence. Aside from the fact that evidence is beginning to show that these test results have less validity than was previously supposed, such rigid scheduling prevents the student from experiencing parts of the curriculum which may have not only important intellectual meaning for him but also practical applications. It is certainly reasonable to suppose that a college-bound student could benefit from some knowledge of auto mechanics and typing – two courses which would be closed to him under a rigid structure. Likewise the classics, inspirationally taught, could have significance to the youngster who might see himself as a future businessman or mechanic.

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[4] J. Lloyd Trump and Dorsey Baynham, *Guide to Better Schools: Focus on Change* (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1961), p. 55.

Moreover, these choices are made mechanistically and without any reliance on practical experience. Thus the academic student is assigned to these courses because his IQ indicates his ability to handle them and his achievement seems to confirm this. Students in the other areas of the curriculum are assigned in much the same fashion. There is little or no room left for experimentation or the testing of reality, i.e., does or can the student "live" with his achievement? A test can hardly recognize in an effective way whether an academic child will not be thoroughly motivated and excited by courses in art or music or whether a youngster who seemingly is non-academic might not find an imaginative approach to academic physics exciting. Further, the mechanistic approach often makes art classes as well as those in the trades and business a "dumping ground" for children who are judged incapable of succeeding elsewhere. The result is a kind of interaction that is disillusioning to both the students involved and the teachers of these subjects. Potential dropouts are frequently assigned to such courses in a mechanistic belittling and often futile attempt to remedy the situation. One benefit may arise for art, shop, and homemaking teachers. Many of them develop special skills in teaching this kind of student and become expert at motivating them. But this is not usually part of the planned program. It just happens.

In the experimental curriculum, a series of varying experiences is organized for the student from kindergarten through the ninth or possibly the tenth grade. As he tries different subjects in the academic, the artistic, the mechanical, the business fields he begins to develop some insights into their content.

It is through experience that the student begins to understand his own assets and limitations. The curriculum becomes a tool establishing constructs in reality, a tool for helping him discover what he enjoys most and what he responds to least and many of the stages in between. This approach, of course, presupposes the flexibility of grouping mentioned in the previous chapter. It also suggests that the administrator permit the youngster both to succeed and *to fail*. In the past one of the reasons such a program has not been very successfully implemented is that parents, administrators, and teachers have been too fearful of failure and too eager to overprotect the youngster. They have been too anxious to insure that he find his proper "niche" long before he has had a chance to sample the wide range of man's endeavors. Certainly no man can be equally proficient in all things, but all men should be somewhat interested in what humankind has achieved. With this in mind it becomes important for the child to sample the great books. Not only this, but he needs to sample also the world of work: the oiling and greasing of a car; and he needs to sample the aesthetic world: the difficult and often elusive task of capturing a sunset on canvas.

That he will be not as good in some things as in others goes without saying, but with the help of his teachers he should discover this for himself and not let tests alone point it out. Here the administrator plays a signal role. He reassures parents when academic students find themselves less adequate in non-academic pursuits and vice versa. He helps teachers organize the curriculum so that they can accept this differentiation and make room for this range in their classrooms. It is possible that a mechanically gifted student could set up equipment in physics as a member of a team including an academic child. It is also possible that the academic student, in addition to assisting in overhauling motors, could help illustrate some of the underlying theories of internal combustion in an auto trade class. Finally, all could benefit by experience in the emotional expression found in the visual arts, music, and dramatics as well as in the physical expression found in physical education of the kind emphasized in other countries: eurhythmics, gymnastics, calisthenics, and carry-over sports.

THE NATURE OF THE PREDETERMINED CURRICULUM

Let us examine in some detail what we might see in a school with a predetermined curriculum. In the typical elementary school, rigid standards are set. Year by year they determine promotion or failure, regardless of the individual. In spite of the apparent heterogeneity of the group, there is X-Y-Z grouping within the class. Even when the curriculum is ostensibly experimental, as in the so-called ungraded primary school, it is only a disguised attempt at maintaining similar standards in terms of the maturation of the pupils without concern for their basic feelings of self-worth. The idea that failure is acceptable under these conditions because it is not labeled as such seems to us to be unrealistic, for the child is being held back because of something over which he has no control – his rate of academic maturation. This is in sharp contrast to his ability to succeed in certain areas and fail in others which is characteristic of all human beings. If we were to carry a limited notion of maturation based on our own prejudices to its extreme, we might arrive at the conclusion that the most intelligent person is the most worthy if we are intellectuals; the best athletes are the most important citizens if we are athletically inclined; the wealthiest businessman is the greatest contributor to the society if we are wealthy businessmen. Clearly all of these ideas have their limits too; unless all these people are seen holistically, we can hardly say we see them at all.

Emphasizing rugged individualism, however, causes fragmentation of the curriculum as well as fragmentation of the individual. In the elementary school we have seen that maturation is really based primarily on academic standards, with reading first and social studies and arithmetic following. Yet Bruner (as quoted) has suggested that children can handle many complex mathematical situations long before most of us think they can.

Grouping

In the predetermined curriculum the elementary school differentiates the curriculum in the classroom in terms of judgment rather than need. The cues given to children involve classification in a global sense, regardless of how carefully this fact is disguised. When students in the higher reading group are asked about this they say they are in the group because they "have superior ability," "are better readers," "would be held up by the slower students," etc. One of the tapes made in a minor research project by a student clearly indicates how a fourth-grade boy is developing feelings of superiority and intellectual complacency as he mentions his need not to be held up in reading by the slow students down in the lower group.[5] On the other hand, students in the slower group show the beginnings of feelings of inferiority and defeat as they suggest why they are there: "because of poor grades, I guess," "because I'm dumb," "because I can't read too good," etc. This is envy of and hostility toward the more successful student – a condition that certainly is not healthy when we think of the heterogeneity necessary in any society, particularly the democratic society. Feelings of suspicion of the "egghead" and of excellence may have their inception here.

A further complication is that wherever this classification has been tried outside the self-contained classroom, i.e., having the accelerated readers come to school a half-hour earlier and retarded readers stay half an hour after the others leave, the girls outnumber the boys in the former group and the boys outnumber the girls in the latter. Thus one school using this staggered program ended with a 4–1 ratio of girls over boys in the morning session and a 7–1 ratio of boys over girls in the afternoon group. When classes are arranged this way, with the more accelerated students in one class and the lower achievers in another, the same ratio reappears.

An important factor often overlooked is the loss of sex identification that is implicit in this kind of situation. First, it becomes apparent to children of both sexes that girls succeed more readily than boys in the early grades; thus learning per se is regarded as basically feminine, so that by the time high school is reached, English and poetry and music and even homework are considered somewhat effete and not masculine. Second, normal social associations which in the intermediate grades (4, 5, and 6), should be with the same sex, i.e., boys with boys and girls with girls, are disrupted, so that considerable apprehension is aroused, particularly among those boys who achieve successfully. As one boy put it pathetically, "I am in a class of all girls."

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[5] Darryl Ross, "Grouping," unpublished study, 1964.

These errors in grouping for curriculum purposes were questioned years ago. In 1954 Harl Douglass made the following statements concerning grouping at the secondary level:

> 1. Naturally students placed in sections with those of less ability were somewhat stigmatized. In some schools this situation was handled not at all diplomatically, and the students were embarrassed and parents were disturbed.
> 2. The grouping was not well done, and the students in each group were not more homogeneous with respect to capacity and ability than in so-called heterogeneous groups.
> 3. The teachers did not realize that within each group there was still a wide range of individual differences, and that therefore other supplementary methods must be employed.
> 4. The teachers most often in charge of the sections for the less able, as well as for the more able, lacked adequate time, ingenuity, background, and imagination, and did not adjust the learning activities to the learning of the student.
> 5. Teachers did not realize, too, that youngsters in a given group might apparently be better equipped by ability for some parts of the course than for others, and that the students who might seem to be somewhat lacking in ability for several weeks might later be capable of doing much more difficult work.
> 6. Students in most schools were not grouped separately for each subject, but were grouped for all subjects, ignoring the obvious fact that the student who might be somewhat inferior in ability, capacity and background and interest in one subject might be average or even better in another subject.[6]

The statements apply equally well to the elementary school.

Classification of High Schools

The rigid high school organization takes one of two forms. The more extreme form is the organization of independent high schools, which might be classified as the academic or the college-preparatory high school, the commercial high school, and the technical or vocational high school. In 1963 an unpublished study issued by the Committee on Education, Guidance and Work of the New York Schools indicated some of the problems attendant on this approach:

> forcing children to make a vocational choice when they are far too young, frequently as early as the eighth grade;

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[6] Harl R. Douglass, *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools* (Boston: Ginn & Company, 1963), p. 335. Reprinted through the courtesy of Blaisdell Publishing Company, a division of Ginn and Company.

> making it difficult for the student to change his program either to or from an academic or vocational curriculum when a change in his own interest or evaluation of his ability indicates that such a change is desirable;
>
> inadequately emphasizing the basic skills of reading, writing, oral communication, and arithmetic which are the most important vocational skills in today's world;
>
> giving less time than necessary to the social studies, which are indispensable tools for understanding the responsibilities of citizenship in our complex society;
>
> insufficiently preparing students for the broad skills and adaptability which is now required by rapid changes in technology;
>
> encouraging de facto segregation by the placing of a great predominance of lower socioeconomic group members in separate vocational schools;
>
> distributing young people into distinct categories making it impossible for them to meet and work together in an educationally desirable and democratic atmosphere;
>
> focusing attention on competition among the city's high schools for the talented students rather than upon the creation of flexible programs designed to meet the needs of each individual student.
>
> The growing awareness of these disadvantages may well account for the fact that following World War II, a trend away from separate vocational schools developed throughout the United States. In the western states particularly, vocational training for skilled positions was postponed to the post high school years while training for lower skilled occupations was incorporated into the regular high school program.

The study further pointed out that it was necessary to

> *Increase Educational Flexibility and Student Mobility*
>
> It is almost impossible today for a student to transfer from an academic high school to a vocational high school or vice versa. Yet, curriculum flexibility and student mobility are essential if secondary education is to meet its responsibilities. Flexibility in the curriculum is necessary to provide for the needs of the rapid learner, the slow learner, the "late bloomer" and other students with special needs.
>
> The single system high school will avoid present difficulties in transferring a student from one program of study to another as his interests change or professional evaluations of his performance and potential call for a reorientation of his study program. The deferring of training in specific and advanced job skills until after high school will add flexibility in giving the individual student the education he requires in basic and essential skills.
>
> Nothing short of an entirely new organization of secondary education, based on a single comprehensive system of high schools, will provide the degree of flexibility and mobility to which every student is entitled.

The Three-Track System

When we examine comprehensive high schools, we find that many of them use a three-track system. In effect this is a "school within a school" based on vocational choice, made very often at the end of the eighth grade and usually affording little opportunity to change from one track to another. The tracks are: the academic or college-bound program, the business program, and the occupational or technical program – a translation of the academic high school, the commercial high school, and the technical high school. There has been no definitive change in the curriculum structure, but only a gathering of the various courses into a single unit. Even the titles of the courses suggest the kind of choice that a 14-year-old has made regarding his future. Thus we have English, business English, and remedial English; in fact one high school calls the latter elementary English. Which track a student is on is revealed by his English course. Or we may see algebra, business math, and arithmetic; again the track is fairly obvious. What is being said, subliminally perhaps, is that some students are highly acceptable, some are all right, and some are tolerated. It is clear which will have the highest incidence of dropouts – or, to use the term Wilson Riles gave them in his speech at Sacramento State College, September 1963, "push-outs." Yet the first statement in the New York study opposed to the segregation of children is that it has the effect of "forcing children to make a vocational choice when they are far too young, frequently as early as the eighth grade. . . ."

An even more subtle loss to the student and the curriculum may be that this kind of segregation limits the possibility for experimentation except in the newer courses. It is often in "business" English and in "remedial" English that experimentation takes place – new methods are developed, new curricula established. In remedial classes the classics may be modified to help retarded readers become interested in Poe and Hawthorne, so that these newer courses have enabled publishers to bring out new materials.[7]

However, English for the academic student has remained pretty much the same for the past 25 or 30 years. A survey completed in May 1964 by the Educational Testing Service shows the following classics read in 30 or more per cent of the schools. Only one new title appears in the list used by the public school: *Our Town,* by Thornton N. Wilder. Although the public school list is somewhat more flexible than others it is still tradition bound.

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[7] The Globe Publishing Company has a series typical for reading skills programs. Each volume contains question and test materials plus teaching aids included in the text. The reading level is indicated after each title. A few are:

Ben Hur, by Wallace, RL 5–6.
Ivanhoe, by Scott, RL 5–6.
Master Skylark, by Bennett, RL 7–8.

Some typical titles for business English are:

Earl Poe Strong, *Writing for Business and Industry* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962, pp. 456).
Charles Chandler Parkhurst, *Business Communication for Better Human Relations* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961, pp. 579).

PUBLIC (N-222)		CATHOLIC (N-223)		INDEPENDENT (N-192)	
Macbeth	90%	*Macbeth*	96%	*Macbeth*	89%
Julius Caesar	77	*Julius Caesar*	83	*Julius Caesar*	78
Silas Marner	76	*Merchant of Venice*	80	*Hamlet*	66
Our Town	46	*Silas Marner*	60	*Scarlet Letter*	50
Great Expectations	39	*Red Badge of Courage*	51	*Tale of Two Cities*	47
Hamlet	33	*Tale of Two Cities*	48	*Huckleberry Finn*	47
Red Badge of Courage	33	*Great Expectations*	44	*Silas Marner*	45
Tale of Two Cities	33	*Hamlet*	44	*Great Expectations*	44
Scarlet Letter	32	*Our Town*	38	*Merchant of Venice*	43
		Scarlet Letter	37	*Odyssey*	43
		Pride and Prejudice	32	*Oedipus the King*	38
				Red Badge of Courage	37
				Romeo and Juliet	36
				Return of the Native	34
				Pride and Prejudice	31

Other studies might show similar characteristics in mathematics, foreign languages, history, etc. It is entirely possible that instituting heterogeneous grouping in these courses would encourage modification of the curriculum and make it more realistic.

In an article on "Individual Differences and Curriculum Practice" Walter W. Cook stated,

> Although such facts [modification of the curriculum] should be basic data in educational thinking, traditional school organization and curriculum practices ignore them. The idea of homogeneous groups of pupils receiving uniform instruction by mass educational techniques from uniform textbooks dies hard. The assumptions persist: that grade levels signify rather definite stages of educational achievement, that the course of study for a grade is the prescribed academic requirement to be administered uniformly to all pupils, that all pupils in a grade should be capable of coping successfully with the work outlined for that grade, that a pupil should not be promoted to a grade until he is able to do the work outlined for that grade, that when individual differences are provided for, all pupils can be brought up to standard, that maintaining a passing mark results in homogeneous instructional groups, and that when relative homogeneity of a class does not prevail it is the result of poor teaching or lax standards.[8]

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[8] Walter W. Cook, "Individual Differences and Curriculum Practice," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 39 (March, 1948), pp. 141–148.

THE NATURE OF THE GOAL-CENTERED OR PUPIL-CENTERED CURRICULUM

The Elementary School

Despite the comments made in the preceding section, much recent experimentation shows promise. The curriculum is being modified in order to take into account many of the objections that have been raised.

One of the first steps in this direction was a return to "personalized" organization. That this was only a reversion to some of the values inherent in the old one-room schoolhouse will be recognized in the materials following.

We have already presented the concept of the multi-graded school and a number of the reactions to it. Now let us consider this form of organization as it appears in various school districts and some of the research that was done regarding the non-graded school, recognizing that final answers are not yet available. A 1958 issue of *Newsweek* contained an article entitled "The Gradeless School." While it mentions the ungraded classroom, the most important part of the discussion concerns multi-graded classrooms:

> In the most striking departure from the conventional, the Los Angeles suburb of Torrance, Calif. (population: 90,000), put two more of its 25 elementary schools under a "multigrade" system pioneered experimentally in one of its schools for the past three years. The new installations put about 600 youngsters into eighteen multigrade rooms, leaving some 1,700 in 51 regular classes.
>
> Essentially, the Torrance plan is a return to the old fashioned one-room school. First, second, and third graders are still designated as such but work together under the same teacher. As new 6-year-olds come in, 8-year-olds pass along to a second three-year multigrade.
>
> "The one-room school had something," says J. H. Hull, Torrance superintendent "and we have recaptured it." As evidence, he cites tests which show that multigrade children learned more reading, arithmetic, and language than those who went through three conventional grades. Neither the pupils nor teachers were specially chosen for the test.
>
> Like the other plans, the multigrade system is focused on the fact that a child does not always advance at the same speed in all subjects. At Torrance, a second grader may be learning arithmetic with third graders while reading with first graders. "You might say," one teacher observes, "that we took a knife and sliced through the class according to the pupils' abilities."
>
> Child's-eye view: At the same time, Torrance has found that, under multigrading, the older children help the younger ones. Both benefit, according to one teacher — "the older ones by a review of what they have studied in the past, and the younger ones by child's eye view explanations."
>
> Parents of Torrance multigraders agree that the plan helps children achieve their potentialities — while avoiding the heartbreak of being "left back."
>
> "Our boy was slow in reading," Baxter Omohundro, a newspaper reporter, recalled this week, "but did well in other areas. He would have been cut back in a normal class because of his reading and here he remained in the same classroom and could get caught up."

Teachers find that handling three age levels at once has a stimulating effect on their work. "It is so easy to slip back into the traditional mass approach in a single grade," says teacher Frank Taylor. "But a multigrade program makes you think. It's frustrating at times, but it's worth it because, as you solve your new problems, you make the work more effective for all students."

As to the merits of such innovations, Dr. Shirley Cooper, associate secretary of the American Association of School Administrators, seemed to have no doubts. "Any program recognizing that children of the same ages do not necessarily have the same ability," he said, "should help contribute to an improvement of our school system."[9]

A research analysis of the effects of multi-graded grouping follows:

Suggestions for Evaluating Inter-Age Grouping Plans

1. Children will do better in achievement of traditional school subjects in a multi-graded group; older children will help younger and in so doing increase their own learning. Younger children will be stimulated by working with older children.

Achievement standards will more often be tied to individual abilities of the child rather than the grade level of a group; hence the brighter pupils will more frequently achieve beyond their grade level, since limiting standards are removed, resulting in less frustration; and they will more readily reach their own expectancy.

In a multi-graded group, instruction will more often utilize the individualized or small group approach. Such instruction results in a greater achievement.

2. Children in a multi-graded group will make greater improvement in personal adjustment.

In a group of great heterogeneity there is greater acceptance of individual differences among children.

As children accept each other in a group, tensions would be released with the accompanying results of each individual improving in his sense of personal freedom, personal worth, and in the feeling of belonging. There will also be an accompanying improvement in self-reliance and a greater freedom from withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms.

3. Children in a multi-graded group will make greater gain in their social adjustment. The older children will learn a great deal from working with younger children, developing the learning to assume responsibility for those who are younger which will help them to improve in the area of social skills. The younger children are often taught and guided best by children who are older.

A child experiencing this grouping pattern as he goes through school will be a member of the younger portion of a group one year; of a middle age group the second year; and the older age group the third year. Such experiences will involve much social learning in contrast to always being the youngest, the average, or the oldest.

4. The learning experiences in a multi-age group will be richer, more meaningful, and more cooperative.

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[9] "The Gradeless School," *Newsweek*, Vol. 52 (September 15, 1958), p. 76. Copyright, Newsweek, Inc., September, 1958. Reprinted by permission.

The essential quality in a learning environment is difference rather than similarity. The group will be composed of children of different ages, interests, abilities, and accomplishments. If all pupils are alike, they have nothing to learn from each other. A wide range enriches the opportunity for each individual for learning. Those who excel in one quality contribute to the enlightenment of others who in turn may be able to reciprocate in another area. Thus, diversities may enrich and extend the learning experiences of each member of the group.

5. Children in a multi-grade group will be more accepting of each other; thus, the pupil-pupil relationships will be better. If pupils in a group are alike, they are more likely to use their energies for contention rather than cooperation. A wide range creates opportunities for being valued rather than envied or patronized. Living together in one group rather than in separate groups will create conditions where older children will accept younger children instead of dominating or scorning them in school or out of school situations. In a group where there is greater social acceptance, there will be fewer rejected pupils.

6. A multi-grade group is a more natural grouping. Such a group resembles the family group. It also reflects neighborhood groups where older children play with younger children.

7. Behavior patterns will improve in multi-grade groups as older children assume responsibility for younger children and as younger children look to older children for guidance and example. The improvement in desirable behavior patterns will be great. Discipline problems will be fewer with the quieting influence of older children who are motivated to set a good example for the younger ones.

8. The attitude towards school on the part of the pupils in the multi-grade groups as well as their parents will be better.

If the foregoing hypotheses are substantiated, it will be a natural outcome to have improved attitudes toward school.

9. Greater teacher cooperation will result in a school with multi-grade groups.

In a school with multi-grade groups, there will be a large number of teachers with similar situations and instructional problems. Sharing these problems and working on them will result in more possible solutions and greater cooperation. The wide range of skills and interests represented in a large group of teachers can thus more readily be utilized. This pattern will promote the idea of a team of teachers all working for the best interest and an improved program for all the pupils.

10. In a school with multi-grade groups, there will be greater flexibility of pupil assignment. Flexibility of pupil assignment is a characteristic of a good grouping program. In a school with multi-grade grouping children may be shifted at any time from one group to another without implication of demotion or promotion, in quest of harmonious relationships among children, with individual teachers, and in terms of the social needs of the child. The emerging bully may be placed with children predominantly older than he; a highly excitable child may be placed with a group of placid children; an immature child may be placed with mature children; a gifted "not yet" reader needs to be among children who have an easy knack of reading; the shy, withdrawn child can be placed with younger children. The team of teachers working as a unit can make such shifts as individual and group needs indicate.

11. Individual differences of children will be more adequately met in multi-

> grade groups. In the multi-grade groups the children are actually and clearly different in every aspect of growth and adjustment. In such a group, no one expects everyone to achieve even similar goals, do the same lessons, learn from the same books. Teachers can not escape the responsibility of providing opportunities for activities that engage the common interest and permit the participation of individuals according to their interests, resources, and abilities. In specific skills there will be more individualized instruction because of the wide differences. This is one of the best ways to meet individual differences. Grade level standards will no longer be the objective, but instead the optimum development of each individual becomes the goal.[10]

Perhaps the most difficult problem encountered is related not to the students' attitude or even to the parents' but to the fears of teachers and administrators concerning the increased range of ability and intelligence which a multi-graded room might seem to suggest. But to quote a study made in the Sacramento County Office,

> . . . Testing has revealed that many straight fifth graders have a greater span or approximately the same as that of the multi-graded. In fact what really happens, the grouping in the multi-grade is more evenly distributed; whereas in a straight fifth grade, it tends to bunch up in the middle which makes the small extreme groups more difficult to work with.[11]

When we consider other gains, as stated above — "greater achievement," "greater improvement in personal adjustment," "greater acceptance of individual differences among children," improvement in "sense of personal freedom, personal worth, and in the feeling of belonging" — there would seem to be little question that this program is justified. At present, of course, insufficient research is available to substantiate these tentative findings although much of what has been suggested certainly fits the premises enunciated in the first section of this text. However, some studies have been made of this kind of curriculum practice.[12]

The Secondary School

The Block Program. Perhaps the first step toward a non-graded secondary curriculum was taken in the junior high school when it became clear that a transition program was needed to bridge the gap between the self-contained classroom and the departmentalized program of the senior high school and a *block program* was instituted. Ordinarily, the block program uses the same teacher for three periods in the seventh grade and two periods in the eighth grade; if there is a ninth grade in the school, it is completely departmentalized.

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[10] Walter Rehwoldt and Warren Hamilton, unpublished dissertation, University of Southern California, 1958.

[11] "Grouping Practices," a study by Sacramento County Superintendent of Schools Office, Sacramento, California.

[12] See, for example, *Childhood Education*, 30, No. 2 (October 1953), 62–68.

The student in the seventh grade may meet a single teacher all morning or all afternoon and two or three other teachers during the remainder of the day. During the eighth grade one more teacher is added, and in the ninth grade he may meet a new teacher each period.

The subjects usually assigned to the block are English and social studies, or science and mathematics. Sometimes music, physical education, or art is included.

Because the same teacher taught all these subjects, the block program became confused with the "core" curriculum, but except in rare instances it is quite different. Only teachers who could take an integrated approach in which one subject, possibly social studies, was utilized for purposes of teaching English and art as well, could be said to use the core technique; for the most part, teachers simply taught a period of English, a period of social studies, and a period of art. Teachers who could establish mathematics as the language of science might be seen as approaching the core idea in the science-math block, but here again most teachers taught a period of science and a period of math as separate and distinct entities, and the core program never emerged. However, the student was able to obtain greater personal contact with a teacher whom he could perceive in somewhat the same way he had previously seen his homeroom teacher. He could also come to this teacher with problems related to other areas in the curriculum. In addition, the teacher could work more readily with students who had special problems. All of this was salutary and paved the way for a more sophisticated look at the curriculum structure.

There is a good deal of ambivalence toward the block program. Conant's book on the secondary school had recommended a block of at least two periods, or perhaps a three-period block in the seventh grade and a two-period block in the eighth.[13] But many teachers felt that the only subjects they were qualified to teach were their major and minor subjects. Others were eager to attempt the block program. More than 40 responses indicating this divergence of opinion were obtained by a student in a field study questionnaire issued during an examination of the block program in a particular seventh- and eighth-grade school. We present a few of them:

Some Responses Favoring the Block Program

1. I think this is an excellent idea and follows the trend of specialization which research and statistics (if one wants to believe them) show to be of better teaching and learning qualities. The reading, spelling, and English would naturally correlate into two periods very effectively.

2. It is difficult to make comments without letting personal preference influence your answer. I like it the way it is. There is more interest and variety to a social studies-English block. The two can be taught together without loss to any subject if it is planned. Being able to use part of another period for reports,

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[13] James Bryant Conant, *The American High School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959).

or to finish longer tests in social studies is of real value. It eliminates the need for "10 questions" true-false tests which are poor for most history lessons. Anyone willing to follow the text and teacher's manual should be able to teach the English. I think the stability of a block period where teachers really get to know students and students can get to know a teacher fairly well is important at any age. Many students go through high school with a feeling that teachers are just a blur — all the same, with no interest in them as people. There should be no hurry about forcing specialization on children. A standardized test providing for differences in ability could easily take care of any problems in teaching English.

3. There has already been too much fragmentation of our program. Kids who are in everything in and out of school are shot at from so many directions already they don't know which way to duck. The suggested departmentalization makes us a supermarket for automatic dispensation of subject matter, untouched by human hearts. People of the ages of seventh and eighth graders do not learn that way. They are not ready to be weaned from a block situation. Teachers who cannot become adequately proficient in English and history on an eighth grade level should not *be* teachers.

Some Responses Opposed to the Block Program

1. Because I am certain that some teachers are better able to present one subject than others, I am convinced that more departmentalization would be better. The preparation of one subject would allow me greater time to prepare and expand more interesting units. I have talked with several block teachers and most all of them agree that they are weak in at least one of the subject areas. I certainly am in this category. I would welcome a single subject field of teaching.

2. I believe students benefit more from departmental instruction. The more it is broken down, the better the efficiency. It would be nice to see the above mentioned changes in practice. We so often underestimate the ability of students to adjust to a change in situations. We fail to realize that students at this age enjoy different instructors and don't need to be mothered.

3. I feel that students at the 7–8 grade level are mature enough to gain considerably by further departmentalization than we have at the present time. I could not speak for lower ability groups but believe this is true for average and above groups. I feel that at the present time the students tend to identify themselves with their homeroom teachers as one to whom they would go to seek counseling rather than their block teacher. I believe that teachers could better prepare themselves if they had to prepare in fewer areas and consequently the students should gain.[14]

Diversity in Education. The movement to modify the secondary curriculum was further stimulated by the President's Science Advisory Committee, which stated in part,

> There is a great diversity in the American educational system — but not enough. For example, despite interesting experiments in advance placement, there is still too much emphasis placed on a particular number of years of schooling — there

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[14] Raymond W. Cook, unpublished field study, 1964.

are some students for whom this number is too many, and others for whom it is too few. There is no reason to expect every student to need sixteen years to graduate from college. Experience has shown that some able and well-adjusted students can save two or more years out of the sixteen-year program without loss. Others may well and profitably study for a longer period to attain the same goal. Moreover, within a school year there is relatively little freedom of scheduling in school or college. Most subjects are purveyed on some kind of regular calendar which allots roughly the same amount of time to each, which appears with the same periodicity and which ignores differences in learning needs or methods, or in the importance of the subject.[15]

But even here, much of the classical difference of perception between the more gifted and the less gifted still obtained, and the committee continued, "It is especially important to enhance the opportunities for the most gifted student. He can do some things that the less gifted can never do." Again the assumption is made that giftedness is its own excuse and that one can serve others without contacting or even considering them; therefore, the less gifted form "obstacles in learning," to use the terminology of the committee, though it has been shown that often quite the reverse is true. It is not happenstance that some of the greatest minds and certainly the most gifted students, i.e., the Schweitzers and the Einsteins, show the deepest concern for the education of others and the commitment of service to others while some gifted minds tend to isolate and destroy others.[16]

Increased Flexibility. However, the change is proceeding, and the curriculum in the secondary school is gradually becoming more flexible. Trump and Baynham have suggested many basic modifications in the curriculum, involving (1) small-group instruction, (2) large-group instruction, and (3) independent study.[17] It is obvious that these three phases will increase flexibility and change the entire structure of the school including the building and scheduling as well as the curriculum. They will also influence the administrative role, for as Trump and Baynham suggest,

> Today's principals spend a large part of their time and energy on the *mechanics* of administration. There are the mechanics of the school schedule, the basketball team, the junior prom, the cafeteria, the bus system, the PTA, and many more. Mechanics press in on all sides, and mechanical chores demand immediate attention. They present weekly, sometimes daily, deadlines. Curriculum, on the other hand, seldom presents any such demands, so curriculum changes often wait.
>
> A few principals are quite content with the present situation. They find real satisfaction in the development of a smoothly running machine. They like the mechanics.[18]

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[15] Trump and Baynham, *op. cit.*, pp. 46–47.

[16] We would again refer the reader to the quotation from Bettelheim on p. 348.

[17] Trump and Baynham, *op. cit.*, pp. 24–32.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 65.

And they state,

> The success of the school of the future, with its highly diversified staff, will depend to a significant degree on the selection, assignment, coordination, and inservice training of staff members. Principals will know very well the competencies of various members. All these important duties will be aided by the team-teaching setting and by enough time and opportunity to work closely with the staff. . . .
>
> Principals of the future will take the lead in making available a wide range of these learning resources. They will understand that individual students learn more readily through the use of different types of instructional aids. They will work with their staffs in making professional decisions regarding which aspects of subject matter, which objectives of education can be accomplished through television, teaching machines and other programmed materials, books, small-group discussion, independent study, and all other approaches to learning. . . .
>
> The principals of the future will not only be concerned with planning these work spaces, they will also plan schedules so that students and teachers can utilize the space effectively. The schedule will be the servant rather than the master of education and the principal will make it so.[19]

The same authors insist upon involving people:

> A focus on change, in a school program, requires the active involvement of all persons affected by that change. The school staff, the administration, the board of education, the students, their parents, and other members of the community need to study, work, and plan together if changes are to be understood, accepted, and put into effect.
>
> All appropriate groups in the community can be mobilized for involvement through a coordinating organization. This organization . . . might include 18 to 20 persons representing the various constituencies of the school. The group might include, for example, four staff members, elected by the staff itself; four students, probably officers of the student council; four parents, possibly members of the parent-teacher association executive board; four persons to represent the community at large; one or two representatives of the board of education; and one or two representatives of the administrative-supervisory staff.
>
> Each of the constituencies must be organized democratically so that members may share in the creation of ideas and dissemination of information and participate in other appropriate ways in various phases of the program for change. The faculty, for instance, should be organized to permit all members to express ideas in general meetings and in separate groups, to experiment with ideas in practice, and to exchange reports of experiences. Channels of communication between the community representatives and organized groups in the community in general must be carefully worked out and also their role in the process should be explained.
>
> The potential role of the public in bringing fresh ideas and lending support to new approaches in education is purposely emphasized. Parent-teacher associations, citizens' advisory groups, and *ad hoc* committees will be utilized.
>
> Explanatory materials need to be distributed and discussed widely so that the

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[19] *Ibid.*, pp. 66–67.

> thinking and imagination of many persons are stimulated. Recommendations for the formation of sub-groups and committees to study different approaches to change will come to the coordinating group for approval. Similarly, reports of findings will be brought to the group so that plans can be made for their dissemination.[20]

All of the foregoing does create flexibility, set new horizons, and give students the opportunity for independence as well as dependence. However, some of the proposals need to be examined critically.

Inherent Problems in Team Teaching. The authors suggest the use of team teaching, implying that teachers can complement each other and that some teachers may be better able to function in large groups and some in small groups. There is nothing wrong with this idea, but team interaction is not easy to achieve. In fact, the more significant the team, the more difficult is the training that must go into its establishment. A fundamental team in any society is the family, based as it is on the marriage contract. Far from being simple, the family team is one of the most complicated associations of all. It would seem that the more committed the team is to any idea, the more careful must be its apprenticeship and training, the more complex its interaction may be, and the harder its goal will be to achieve.

Trump and Baynham are probably aware of this difficulty, for as they say, "Not all teachers should be required to become members of a teaching team."[21] But even more subtle is the fact that often when two or more people belonging to the same profession set out to establish a group, a struggle for ascendancy or power ensues. Sometimes the very nature of the organization makes conflict inevitable. For example, it is not unlikely that what the authors call the "large-group" teacher might be seen as the head of the group, while the "small-group" teacher might be seen as less important even though the latter is possibly the key person to the student. Of course, the "instruction assistant" would be understood to be subordinate to the other two.

Merit Pay. To make the task even more complex, Trump and Baynham recommend salary differentials among the teachers based on assignment and work load. This arrangement would, of course, sound excellent to business and would be in keeping with the commercial notion of the society. "The highest salary will be paid to team leaders and teacher specialists – those who are most skilled in small group discussion, large group instruction, and in stimulating independent study."[22] On the face of it, this sounds like a good plan, but it is really only a return to merit pay. A study of merit pay covering the years from 1939 until 1953 showed conclusively that, while merit pay had become rather popular in the early 1950s, it seemed to create more difficulties than it solved and was being abandoned; its use had dropped from 30.4 per cent in 1939 to 2.1 per cent in 1953.[23]

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[20] *Ibid.*, pp. 125–126.
[21] *Ibid.*, p. 106.
[22] *Ibid.*, p. 48.

Davis has reviewed other literature on the subject: "In cities with more than 30,000 population, the percentage reporting a 'superior-service maximum' has steadily declined from about 20 per cent in 1938 to about 7 per cent in 1957. Further, in 1955–1956 and 1956–1957, 'about half of the districts that have these superior-service provisions do not use them.' "[24]

Largely because teaching is both a science and an art, a description with which Trump and Baynham agree, the effectiveness of the teacher is difficult to measure. Actually it is generally measured by what the observer perceives, which may or may not be what the teacher is attempting to accomplish (see Chapter 19). Also, art by its very nature is often appreciated long after the artist has disappeared from the scene. Similarly, some outstanding teachers and administrators can be appraised in terms of the goals of education mentioned earlier, only long after their students and teachers have been graduated. Also, any system which measures or attempts to measure for purposes of payment in money not only creates undesirable rivalries but assumes that the teacher's reward is basically a financial one. Personnel workers have discovered that even non-professional employees list salary as second or third in order of their preferences, usually placing a sense of belongingness and importance before salary.

Finally, the merit system gives the administrator too much judgmental power, predicated not on service but on reward, and antithetical to the democratic concept of power. Further, it would widen the gap between principal and teacher even more seriously — a situation which would be most undesirable both to the profession and to administrators. It is upon the teacher that both the profession and the administrator depend.

Shortcomings of the Trump Plan. In a film, "And No Bells Ring," based on the Trump plan, the narrator, Downs, makes two comments which need careful scrutiny also. First, he indicates that 40 per cent of the time will be spent in large-group instruction, 40 per cent in independent study, and 20 per cent in small-group instruction. Thus 80 per cent of the student's time goes into a depersonalized curriculum, i.e., no teacher is available to the student unless the student takes the initiative in seeking him out. Trump does say that in the large-group lecture hall there might be a two-way speaker system so that any one of the 400 students in the class could ask a question by simply pushing a button. But this is only a mechanical means of attempting to overcome depersonalization. It is hardly a way to personalize anything, let alone the extremely important relationship between a teacher and a student.

[23] Eugene J. Jundt, "A Historical Study of Merit-Rating and Salary Scheduling from 1930 to the Present," unpublished thesis.

[24] Hazel Davis, "Salary Schedules," in C. W. Harris (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 3rd ed., 1960), p. 367.

Second, one of the advantages of this program, Downs suggests, is that since there are not enough good teachers to go around, they can be used more effectively when they lecture to large groups and have small groups as part of their assignment. Regardless of the structure in which teaching takes place, if there are not enough good teachers, the important thing is to recruit and train more outstanding teachers, not to avoid the problem. Avoidance is the poorest answer because it does not solve a problem but merely goes around it. This may be a necessary expedient temporarily, but it should never be seen as a desirable solution.

Despite these weaknesses, which need only careful examination and with which the administrator must be able to deal, Trump and Baynham's *Guide to Better Schools* challenges the traditional curriculum and is worthy of considerable thought and positive action.

THE FLEXIBLE CURRICULUM: AN EXAMPLE

Melbourne High School in Melbourne, Florida, has been working with these exciting new ideas, as well as some of its own. B. Frank Brown, the principal, indicates the following results, among others:

> Students "questing" at their own rate of speed gave Melbourne a Third Place Westinghouse Talent Search winner in 1961 — and a First Place winner in 1962.
>
> The percentage of students dropping out of school fell to an astonishingly low 4% — from the national average of 33%.
>
> The number of Melbourne graduates who enrolled in college climbed rapidly from a normal 40% to 70%.
>
> The amazing diversity of new courses, such as Asian philosophy, electronic engineering, and the Russian and Chinese languages, stimulated enormous student enthusiasm and nation-wide attention.[25]

The entire curriculum is non-graded, and in the chapter "Making the Curriculum Meaningful" Brown explains how it works. Space limitations prevent our doing more than mentioning a few items. Perhaps the most important part of the program is that students list what they wish to take, on the basis of their own needs, desires, and ambition. This, of course, gives them the opportunity for success or failure depending on their own perceptions of reality. But certainly it is in keeping with the right of adolescents to set their own goals. The program goes like this:[26]

> *The Nongraded System Is Easy to Manage*
>
> Conventional-minded educators usually express reluctance about doing away with grades because of the ease and effectiveness with which grades can be

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[25] From the book, *The Non Graded High School*, by B. Frank Brown. © 1963 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey. P. 135.

[26] *Ibid.*, pp. 135–138. From the book, *The Non Graded High School*, by B. Frank Brown. © 1963 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

administered. They express concern over the chaos which may result when youngsters are not kept within the framework of the graded organization. At Melbourne, we have found that the nongraded system is just as easy to manage as the grade system. We have not added more personnel and the staff does not feel overburdened.

Registration Procedure

In an effort to deal with each student as an individual, the entire teaching staff of Melbourne devotes three full days at fall registration to the process of signing students up for courses. This allows adequate time for consultation and academic counseling.

The setting for registration finds teachers arranged by departments around the school's gymnasium. Students pick up their registration forms at the entrance to the gymnasium, go directly to each department in which they wish to take a course, and register for the class which they want and are qualified to undertake. The teacher makes out the roll for his class at this time. When school opens several days later, everyone knows exactly where he is to go and who his teachers are.

The entire registration procedure, including the directions to the students, is as follows:

Melbourne High School
Registration Directions

Step I

Juniors and Sophomores must have annual pictures taken in the cafeteria today. Be sure that you obtain a receipt as this must be handed in with the registration forms. Annual pictures for Seniors may be taken later by appointment.

Step II

List the subjects that you plan to take on the Student's Schedule. Courses are offered by depth as follows:

PHASE 1 Subjects are centered around remedial work.
PHASE 2 Subjects are concerned with basic skills.
PHASE 3 Subjects are designed for students who perform at an average level.
PHASE 4 Subjects are available for students desiring education in considerable depth.
PHASE 5 Subjects are open to students who are willing to assume responsibility for their own learning and plan to go far beyond the boundaries of a single course.

A student may be rescheduled into a higher numbered phase at any time during the year by demonstrating increased academic maturity.

In order to avoid the embarrassment of being scheduled into a lower phase later, students should take responsibility for their proper placement. If you are in doubt, consult one of the counselors or the Dean for advice.

Step III

After you have listed the subjects of your choice, go to the various departments in the gymnasium and have the teacher of the subject chosen approve your choice. The teacher will check achievement standings to assure that you are properly phased. The teacher will make his class roll at the time he registers you for his class. If you make a class change after the teacher has approved your schedule, go back to that teacher and have your name taken from his roll. If you do not do this, when school begins you will be required to attend the class for which you first registered. The Student's Schedule must be kept – it is your ticket to class the first day. You CANNOT BE ADMITTED WITHOUT IT.

Step IV

After all subjects have been assigned into periods and approved by each teacher, fill out one Melbourne High School Schedule Card and the Personnel Form.

Step V

Buy this year's I.D. Card from the Student Council table. Last year's card is now obsolete.

Step VI

Turn in the Personnel Form, Melbourne High School Schedule Card, and receipt showing that annual pictures were taken at the Registrar's desk. Present your I.D. card and Student's Schedule which will be stamped "Official" by the person at the desk. The Student's Schedule will serve as your admit to class the first day of school. *If all steps have been taken, you are now officially registered. Report for your first period class on the first day of school at 8:40 a.m.*

Although the students schedule themselves into one of the five phases, based on standardized achievement tests in mathematics, science, English, and history, the important aspect of this new program lies in the following statement:

> The significant factor about the new organization for phased learning is that any student in any phase can move to a higher phase whenever his achievement warrants a change. The entire effort of the school is in the direction of forward placement.[27]

Briefly, standards in the goal-centered curriculum are set by the students themselves. As a result, standards do not go down but up. Motivation becomes intensified because the individual knows that he may do as much as he wishes and will be recognized for it. Indeed, in some cases the acceptance of this fact is almost startling to the more traditional-minded person.

> . . . When a student makes an A in a subject, class attendance is no longer required. For example, an A student in physics has the privilege of skipping the physics class and going to the library to work on English, a subject in which he may be making a C, or, for that matter, on any subject he pleases.[28]

In *The Nongraded High School,* Brown refers to letters written to him by present and former high school students of Melbourne showing their appreciation for this kind of program. Adolescents have written him from all parts of the country asking how they might matriculate at Melbourne. It would seem the youth are more ready than many have believed to accept the responsibility for their own education.

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[27] Trump and Baynham, *op. cit.*, p. 216.
[28] *Ibid.*, p. 167.

PRESENT PRACTICES IN EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Turning briefly to cocurricular and extracurricular activities, we find several approaches possible. Johnston and Faunce suggest what might be called the *needs approach*, giving 17 different needs of children and youth in this area.[29] Among them are the following:

1. Acceptance by age-mates. . . .
4. Opportunities to carry responsibilities and make decisions. . . .
8. Organized group activities, based on group planning and participation. A part in planning for activities of home, school, and community. An opportunity to feel participation in useful projects related to adult activities. . . .
10. Guidance which is kindly, unobstructive, and holds no threat to his feelings of freedom. . . .
13. Opportunities to develop own interests, develop personal skills, carry on hobbies. . . .
14. Help in keeping a balance between group needs and individual needs and interests. . . .
17. Help in understanding why people feel and behave as they do.

Havighurst's approach to the same problem is *task oriented*, and he lists 10 items:[30]

1. Achieving new and more mature relation with age-mates of both sexes.
2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role.
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults.
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence.
6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
7. Preparing for marriage and family life.
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
9. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior.

Finally, Strang's *problem approach* presents 10 problems with which students should come to grips in the activities program:[31]

1. The goal of physical competency — accepting and making the most of one's physical capacities.

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[29] Edgar G. Johnston and Roland C. Faunce, *Student Activities in Secondary Schools* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1952), p. 23.

[30] Robert J. Havighurst, *Human Development and Education* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1953), p. 111.

[31] Ruth Strang, *The Adolescent Views Himself* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957), pp. 201–204.

2. The goal of achieving scholastic success.
3. The goal of getting along with age-mates of both sexes, making friends, learning to work with others for a common purpose.
4. The goal of being prepared for marriage and family.
5. The goal of getting along with one's family, of gaining emotional independence from parents and other adults without hurting their feelings too much.
6. The goal of achieving identity – of discovering and developing one's most acceptable self.
7. The goal of being economically independent.
8. The goal of making sound educational plans and choosing, preparing for, and entering a vocation for which one has the necessary ability and interest.
9. The goal of developing a workable set of values, moral standards, and religious beliefs – of evolving a functional philosophy of life which takes account of one's place in the world.
10. The goal of socially responsible behavior.

While there are some activities that start in the elementary school and should be encouraged, the great majority of them are found in the secondary school curriculum. Certain elementary school practices will be mentioned here, since they embody many of the goals mentioned elsewhere.

In a number of elementary schools student government is introduced. Children beginning at the third grade elect two representatives to the student council. Those elected often take over many activities such as school programs, helping in the library, assisting in the office, handling cafeteria money, etc. In the more enlightened programs every attempt is made to avoid their becoming involved in the discipline of peers. All of their services are directed toward helping in the school or assisting other students even to the selection of outstanding students to act as tutors for those who need remedial assistance. These youngsters may also select others not on the student council to assist them. Many more children become involved in this way. In addition, children in the first and second grades also have representation, but they are often observers, who are, so to speak, learning student government.

Another salutary practice is to set up a number of activities: art, the study of foreign languages, music, dramatics, and any others desired by the youngsters, who express their interest on a prepared list issued by the administrator. Once or twice a week during a shortened day the students may join whichever group they choose. Under these circumstances, all students are assured of enrichment in the curriculum through the cocurricular program. Some schools also provide directed study for students who prefer it during that period. A desirable feature of such a program is that student interests are paramount, even to the extent of having them change their selection at given intervals when they feel the need to do so.

The secondary school, although it has student government, athletics, and social activities, often suffers from the defect of involving only students who have no need for the activity since they are proficient in the skill already. Thus, as one teacher stated, "The leadership club does not teach leadership because it involves all the school leaders anyway." Nor are errors permitted in the selection of student council members since the standards set by administrators and teachers encourage the choice of conforming and "acceptable" students. Under the circumstances, it seems unlikely that students will become any wiser in choosing candidates for office in the future. In our opinion, if errors are to be made in selection, they should be made in the school rather than in society, where the lesson can be costly. Likewise, if future leadership is to be nurtured, shy students must learn the leadership role even if it means reaching out and encouraging them to participate.

A physical education budget often shows the imbalance between extracurricular activities, physical education activities, and intramural sports. It illustrates further the fact that the skilled person usually receives the greater service, while those who have the greater needs are given a much smaller portion of the resources available. We are in receipt of a mythical budget used in a field study – a realistic composite of a number of budgets of junior college physical education departments.[32] The budget together with the questionnaire looked like this:

Physical Education Division Budget

Physical education class activities, men and women		$10,000.00
Athletics, men	$19,000.00	
women	1,000.00	20,000.00
Intramurals		100.00
Recreation		100.00
Total		$30,200.00

It should be assumed: (1) The maximum sum allowable to the division has been allocated ($30,200.). (2) The money allocated to the Physical Education Division is not in competition to money allocated to other divisions of the college.

What is your reaction to this budget?

What suggestions would you make to change and/or improve this budget?

How does this fit in with your philosophy of physical education?

When the questionnaire was given to members of a physical education department, they themselves were struck by its imbalance and became concerned about the need for having more resources in both intramural sports and physical education activities. Such imbalance is all the more pressing in light of what is now known about physical and mental fitness in the American society today. Army rejections because of unfitness in these areas have been staggering. Perhaps the lack of involvement of all youth in the physical education program is one of the causes.

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[32] Gerald Anderson, unpublished field study.

THE CURRICULUM AS AN "AFFECTIVE" IN-SERVICE TOOL

It is possible to approach the curriculum as a way of transmitting knowledge. In this case a course of study is used, and work is carried on in what Bloom calls the cognitive domain. He lists two basic areas of his *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain:* (1) the acquisition of knowledge and (2) the training of intellectual abilities and the establishment of skills.[33] Thus the following is a typical list of topics for in-service staff meetings:

1. Room environments: a place to work with inspiration.
2. Classroom management: ways and means of obtaining it optimally.
3. The school library and its relation to the school program.
4. The use of audio-visual in the instructional program.
5. Science: how we view it.
6. Looking forward to the new math.
7. Primary social studies.
8. Intermediate spelling.
9. The pros and cons of teaching reading.

But there is another taxonomy of educational objectives put forward in a volume subtitled *The Affective Domain*. The affective areas, which involve the emotions and the kinds of human interaction that lead to change, are far more difficult to ascertain, to describe, and to influence. The administrator who does a sensitive job here is functioning at an optimal level. Teachers are intelligent and considerably skilled and have already obtained much knowledge. Yet in-service work constantly showers them with more knowledge, and there is dismay when resistance to change arises. But it is in the social-emotional sphere that the curriculum can be used as an in-service tool. Only as climate is established in which change can take place in administrator-teacher and in teacher-pupil relationships will the curriculum finally change.

Certain things that the authority figure may do, Luft suggests, can have a "corrosive effect on human relations":

a. Setting up barriers — Person with authority begins to wall himself off from others more than is necessary; secretaries, special offices, red tape, etc.
b. Using people as tools — Relates to others as if they were instruments to be used in carrying out his will; impersonal, dehumanizing.
c. No need to check self — Acts arbitrarily; sees no need for checking, because this authority feels he can do no wrong. The validity of his behavior is, for him, self-evident.
d. Exclusive, sticks to his own level — Relates to others in terms of position in hierarchy; glorifies elite, condescending to subordinates.
e. Special language — Uses words, abbreviations, labels in special ways; federalese, or organizational slang; circumlocutions, talks around a point.

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[33] Benjamin S. Bloom (ed.), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain* (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1956).

f. Eliminates opposition — Serious disagreements are not tolerated; demolishes or subjugates dissenter; no long-range working out of differences.
g. Pseudo-humility — Patronizing and sweet at one time, indifferent at other times.
h. Rules and conformity — Insists on ever growing body of rules and regulations; emphasizes conventional ways and conformity; tends to avoid the risks of change.
i. Dichotomizes — Things are right or wrong, yes or no, good or bad; little if any grays; intolerant of ambiguity.
j. No real relationships with subordinates — Selects men who will agree with him even when they don't agree; prefers adulation; seeks out sycophants.
k. When anxious, gets tough — Hard work; cracks down; use of power a convenient way to deny anxieties; buries self in work, yet not genuinely productive.
l. Anti-intraceptive — Denies softer part of self, i.e. feelings in general and things like tenderness, passive needs; psychological processes like defenses, conflict with self are denied.[34]

On the other hand, in Crow's opinion there are activities that tend to promote change. We interpret them as follows:

1. The ability to recognize variables stemming from many different sources and to assess their relative contribution to change in any situation.
2. The skills necessary to influence the relative weight of interaction of these variables.
3. The characteristics of the therapist who is able to promote individual change are self-knowledge, leading to congruence between the therapist's feelings, thoughts and communications; empathic understanding of the situation from the other's viewpoint and the suspension of negative evaluation.
4. In this and other ways, we might profit from the experience of non-directive counseling.
5. The sequential order of needs is: physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem and self-actualization.[35]

Crow adds the following: "Man lives by bread alone when there is no bread. When there is plenty of bread newer and higher needs emerge," and "The essential argument of this presentation has been in favor of an enlargement of our concept of leadership to include all acts which produce change in the thoughts or actions of others. We should include not only 'the man of action' but the contemplative, the supportive, and the creative man as change producers."

What meaning does this concept have for the administrator? It suggests that in the affective domain the curriculum is more than a tool. Because teachers and administrators have invested so much in the curriculum as all good journeymen invest in their tools, their emotional attachment to it affords the administrator an opportunity to introduce all kinds of discussions regarding the curriculum. Thus he supplies ways and means of discharging emotion which in the long run can break down the barriers listed by Luft (see above). Moreover, with the release of emotion in terms of curriculum as the tool, it becomes that much easier to invest in the end which has far greater emotional depth: the development of maturity of all the *persons* involved in the educational process. Much remains to be done in learning to use the curriculum as the Maryland Child Study approach and other devices for purposes of child study have begun to be used. However, it is our belief that under careful and empathic administrative leadership such utility can be established for these most desirable affective goals.

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[34] Joseph Luft, *Group Processes* (Palo Alto, Calif.: The National Press, 1963), pp. 30–31.

[35] Wayman J. Crow, "Characteristics of Leaders Who Are Able to Promote Change," unpublished paper, 1963, pp. 16–17.

Finally, we would agree with Foster on the following statements:

> Self-improvement is a very personal thing and is most likely to occur through a one to one interaction or in a small group. . . .
>
> The principal is more likely to be the instructional leader of a school in a district which operates on a decentralized hypothesis.
>
> In this frame of reference, the local school staff decides on its major needs, how these needs can be met at the local building level, and what help is required from central office consultants without external administrative detail. The school feels responsible for its own behavior, its own program, and its own interaction development.[36]

But to accomplish these ends, the administrator needs the most important quality of all – one that has been mentioned over and over again in one way or another–the quality of self-awareness, not in the usual intellectual sense, but in an integrated, affective sense. He must recognize that he, too, is a teacher and a student; that he, too, is an adult and a child; that he, too, has had happiness and travail; that he, too, enjoys both success and failure; and that he, too, cannot deny for others what he wishes so much for himself – deep feelings of dignity and worth.

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[36] Richard L. Foster, "A Climate for Self-Improvement," unpublished article, p. 2.

22

Evaluation of the Administrator

It is not enough that others measure the administrator. Far more important is his growing ability to measure himself. Indeed, it is sometimes impossible for others to measure him at all, for as Luft indicates in his summarization of leadership, "The leader's role may even include serving as the scapegoat of the group."[1]

What, then, must the administrator measure in himself? The yardstick he uses is the *growth of the people he serves and not what happens to him.* "The search for special characteristics in the personality of the leader has failed to yield convincing results. This applies as much to intelligence as it does to the so-called charismatic or magical quality of the leader."[2] Sometimes, confronted by a group desirous of autocratic and dictatorial leadership, the administrator finds himself in a traumatic and untenable position. But, as Luft quotes Lewin, "experiments have shown that the training of leaders is to a high degree dependent upon the sensitizing of their social perception. The good leader is able and ready to perceive more subtle changes in social atmosphere and is more correct in observing social meaning."[3]

Growth in social perception gives rise to an ability to become aware of what is occurring in oneself and what is happening to individual members of the group — and to integrate this insight in terms of both intelligence and emotion.

An affective understanding of the whole is then possible, rather than a fragmented, piecemeal approach which may neglect the importance of the use of intelligence or overlook the place of emotion. Diagnostic wisdom can come only from such insight, and only from diagnostic wisdom can the proper inferences and solutions based on lifelong training be prescribed. That there will be error may be taken for granted, but insight is predicated on the assumption that error is admissible into conscious awareness. Even though, at times, error is a liability, it may also become, at other times, a useful tool. Not only this, but as the administrator begins to organize and express both his assets and his limitations to the group and to its members, he helps them toward security by increasing their ability to understand their own assets and limitations.

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[1] Joseph Luft, *Group Processes* (Palo Alto, Calif.: The National Press, 1963), p. 29.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 29.

This, then, is his growth in terms of ability to serve others, and his service depends on the application of the premises, insights, and goals discussed in the first two sections of this text. Without commitment to the dignity of the individual, to the importance of group interaction, to the concept of power as service, to the right of all to argumentation and persuasion, he has no democratic basis for his leadership. Without an ongoing attempt to develop empathy, deepen his emotional and intellectual perception, further his creativity, utilize the behavioral sciences as tools, he has no means by which to develop insights. Without an empathic understanding of the characteristics of a profession and the deep and abiding goals of education – even to the point of extending any and all that have been mentioned here, even to the challenging and changing of them – he has no way to suggest the goals toward which he and his group need to struggle in order to maintain his own growth and the evolutionary process in which all are engaged. Since all of this is predicated upon what might be seen as the universal incompleteness of any man, it follows that his basic tool is a deepening honesty in social perception and interaction.

Yet there are superficial factors, which do not measure what they purport to measure. For many years it was assumed that a dignified, prepossessing individual who inspired awe and respect simply because he looked as if he *should* inspire awe and respect had a "leadership appearance." This assumption was not only naïve but destructive of that individual and the group he led.

There was also a notion that political ideals had something to do with leadership. Yet the genuine liberal and the genuine conservative, one looking toward the future and one admiring the past, have much to offer the ongoing dialogue that makes for true interaction. *The Authoritarian Personality* indicates that the extremes of both the left and the right have much in common and limit the dialogue in an authoritarian fashion.[4] What we might call extreme radicalism or extreme reaction has often been confused for a liberal or a conservative point of view.

Religious criteria have been mistakenly used as a yardstick for leadership success or failure. As early as 1935 Jesse Newlon in his book *Educational Administration as Social Policy* pointed out that the vast majority of district superintendents were the least controversial persons.[5] They were Caucasian Protestants – acceptable to the majority. Such prejudiced feelings probably still exist in the society, for, as we have indicated elsewhere, intelligence alone does not preclude them. This kind of judgment destroys self-evaluation, for it blocks from consideration the insights and understandings of those whose notable qualities are hidden from sight by stereotypes.

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[4] T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, D. Levinson, and R. Sanford, *The Authoritarian Personality* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950).

[5] Jesse H. Newlon, *Educational Administration as Social Policy* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935).

4

Ethnic and racial ideas have no place in appraisal of leadership. When desegregation finally takes place, what will happen to present Negro principals? Will they be returned to the classroom or will they compete on equal terms with their Caucasian brothers? What will happen to Negro college presidents? These are questions significant not only to Negro administrators but to the society as a whole. Without the ability to perceive the importance of these ideas, one falls inevitably into the authoritarian attitude. Facing them, he continues to struggle with his own limitations, his own lack of understanding, and grows the wiser.

The Dangers of "Pseudo-Democracy"

We have discussed the ability of the authoritarian to utilize the "accouterments of democracy": the secret ballot and secrecy of the ballot, the manipulation of the budget, the release of only certain kinds of information, the concentration of power in the hands of the few rather than the release of power to the group being served. The danger lies not only in this manipulation but in the growing frustration and cynicism of the group so treated. The resultant indifference that may arise sounds the death knell of democracy. When elections are managed, by whatever means, when power is not given to the people being served, either faculty or students, the majority will become apathetic about the fate of their political system. Their energies are sapped, and they no longer care. Such a condition makes it possible for the man on horseback to ride roughshod over the bit of society which he dominates.

So we suggest that the administrator struggle to resist this power and that he refer it to the group he serves. This step is of the utmost importance. We assert, too, that the group cannot ethically return the power to him as the "benevolent one." Individual power is a temptation, and solutions given the group by kindly men often seem desirable nostrums. But the struggle is part of evolution itself. No creature moved from the sea to the land without struggling. No man moves from lesser to greater insights without similar involvement. As Lindner points out, the evolutionary struggle has become sociological and psychological with man, but its character remains the same – to decry it is to deny a reality that makes man *man*. It is the leader's task not to avoid the struggle, not to simplify it, not to make it smooth, but to make it ongoing, to reduce its frustrations wherever possible, but always to recognize its necessity and its desirability.

There will be pressures brought to bear upon him by "men of good will" who will insist that decisions can be more easily made unilaterally. They can; and certainly mechanistic matters should be considered mechanistically. But where some of the fundamental premises are involved, there the leader needs the strength to live with his own and others' frustrations and ambiguities while enhancing each person's autonomy. A college professor states it eloquently:

> How is it that a small state college in "backward" [name of state] can draw me away from [a large urban college]? The college that I will be going to is one which has two qualities that I find lacking at. . . . Without them here I would always have been susceptible to an offer from another institution. Here at . . . I have never felt, for one thing, that I had any identity. Asked what my institution stands for, or what role the state college system is supposed to play, or how to tell a faculty member from a student or staff member, I would be at a loss to provide serious and meaningful answers. Identity is a quality which stands out all over the institution I will be moving to, so much so that talking about a system [to which the institution does belong] seems irrelevant.

The Evaluation of the Administrator in Terms of People

The administrator needs to develop the ability to understand the common attributes of people, the universal activities of man which we have discussed. He must realize that all men search for meaning in their lives, that all men search for creativity and beauty, that the quest for self-improvement is impelling in all but debilitated men, and that the need to better conditions for oneself and one's loved ones is persistent. He must know that man operates optimally when he is conscious of his need to contribute to others, when he serves not just himself but his neighbor and society.

The administrator must also be able to understand the varied interpretations placed upon these "universals." First, the differences arise because of differences in subgroups in the culture: differences in socioeconomic levels, in racial and ethnic backgrounds, in religious or non-religious beliefs. Second, they arise because of the differences in each individual, regardless of the group from which he comes. But it is fallacy not to recognize that the basic need of man is found in his quest for the universals mentioned above – in what some writers[6] have called the "existential" ideal. Unless he starts with the universals that involve all of humanity and proceeds from there to the subgroups in which he finds himself, to his school or district, to the individual whom he is serving, he may be building his house of relationships, not upon a firm foundation, but from the top down as it were – an attempt obviously doomed to failure.

The Evaluation of the Administrator in Terms of Certificated and Non-Certificated Personnel

To serve the school personnel more effectively, the administrator needs to constantly increase his ability to see all aspects of the educational function as parts of a holistic task. "The skill and competence to make a contribution to the *task* of the group and to the *emotional* processes appear to be significant qualities. These two kinds of skill may be distributed among different individuals in the group."[7]

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[6] Viktor E. Frankl, *Man's Search for Meaning* (New York: Washington Square Press, Inc., 1963).

The fragmentation of education leads to unhealthy competition and often to chaos. Integration leads to the establishment of professional goals and the proper affective perception of the universality of the characteristics of the teaching act from kindergarten through college. The ability to integrate is a measure of the success of the administrator's service to professional personnel.

As the administrator learns to integrate, he improves in in-service work unifying grade levels, elementary and secondary schools, and certificated and noncertificated personnel. Most important of all he learns to release the creative energy of others and contribute to their autonomy by sharing his authority with the group through decentralization. That this has become a challenging concept to students of administration is illustrated by the "growing interest in studying the distribution of leadership functions among members of the group."[8]

However, at all times the administrator must be aware that there are some whose background is such that they are more comfortable with authoritarian leadership, and that he himself may at times be uncomfortable with the ambiguity of democratic interaction. His pressing problem, then, regarding personnel is to struggle with this in himself and to recognize and not to succumb to it in others. Only then can he enhance the democratic group and establish what Lippitt, in his classic study,[9] maintains.

1. *Autocratic* and *laissez-faire* groups were not as original in their work as *democratic* groups were. Nor was autocracy more efficient than democracy.
2. There was more dependence and less individuality in autocratic groups.
3. Under the democratic leader, there was more friendliness and group-mindedness.
4. Under autocratic leaders, there was more overt and covert hostility and aggression, including aggression against scapegoats.[10]

It would seem that if, as has been suggested over and over again, democratic administration is the goal of all administration, then the administrator has no alternative but to heed these observations well.

The Evaluation of the Administrator in Terms of Pupils

The administrative act finds its culmination in service to the pupil. The administrator must ultimately evaluate himself according to how successfully he has been able to guide each student toward a feeling of greater self-worth, toward a respect for people and the development of a social conscience, and toward a love of learning. As he evolves his own insights, he will be able to establish a more insightful guidance program. By decentralizing, he will devise personalized services in guidance. By helping teachers guide students toward the fundamental goals he will make possible student contact with teachers so that their interaction is meaningful, personal, and ongoing. Obviously, large numbers are to be avoided so that the contact is not brief and ephemeral.

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[7] Luft, *op. cit.*, p. 29. Italics added.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 39.

[9] Ronald Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres," *Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology*, University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, 16 (1940), 43–195.

[10] Luft, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

The basic tool used by both administrators and teachers is the curriculum, and it should be a student-centered curriculum based upon student interest and needs. As he is able more and more to recognize ways and means of creating flexibility in the curriculum, eliminating discriminatory practices, and giving all students opportunities to find themselves through success and failure, the administrator comes closer to his goal. For too long now the administrator has overprotected and underprotected students. He has overprescribed in terms of the task and underprescribed in terms of the universal needs for dignity and worth. As he develops insights along the lines mentioned throughout this text, he can begin to place the latter first and the former second. It is infinitely more important that the individual perceive himself realistically than that he be convinced that the end of life is an A in a course or a fine salary and an executive position.

This, of course, means that the administrator must resist the idea that the A student is necessarily "good" and the F student "bad." Even more, he must resist the idea that the superintendent is more often right than the principal, the principal than the teachers, the teachers than the students. Such an a priori belief is only further evidence of the authoritarian attitude. Again, he must also resist the notion that the academic youngster has precedence over the nonacademic one. He must pay attention always to his own needs for self-worth and dignity, needs which might not have been satisfied by A's or the fact that he is an academician, but which found fulfillment when he was able to serve his wife, his family, his teachers, his students, and himself with empathy. This human quality, kept at the conscious level, makes him more reality oriented. We do not decry the achievement of A's, the usefulness of the academic scholar, or the "rightness" of the superintendent. We simply suggest that humanity comes before devices developed by men in indicating certain kinds of talent and that all talent has its place and may be of significant service to men in their fundamental relationships to one another.

The affliction of overclassification is aptly described by a professor who experienced it:

> The other quality is the feeling that people trust and respect me because of the responsibility and integrity and judgment that have traditionally gone with the profession I represent. This quality is so lacking that I have often been led to wonder, in fighting senseless administrative minutiae and getting involved—

> along with all my colleagues — with purely procedural matters, whether this State really wants me to work for it at all.

We have expressed a point of view. Jung, in his article "God, the Devil and the Human Soul," makes the following statements:

> Happiness and contentment, equality of soul and meaningfulness of life — these can be experienced only by the individual and not by a state, which on the one hand is nothing but a convention of independent individuals among themselves and on the other, continually threatens to hypertrophy and suppress the individual. . . .
>
> I am neither spurred on by excessive optimism nor in love with high ideals, but am merely concerned with the fate of the individual human being — that infinitesimal unit on whom a world depends, and in whom, if we read the meaning of the Christian message aright, even God seeks his goal.[11]

We are in accord with much of this statement, but perhaps it needs modification. Perhaps as the individual man is given the opportunity, as Lindner suggests,[12] to continue to evolve, another concept will arise. Perhaps what we need to concern ourselves with is the right of each individual and each group of individuals to dignity, to opportunity for learning, to self-worth, and to social usefulness. Perhaps we need to concern ourselves not just with his achievement but with his right to experiment and to fail. Perhaps we need to concern ourselves with his evolution as he continues to move in the direction of service to others, often failing, to be sure, for it is almost impossible for one man to love all men. Perhaps we need to concern ourselves with the importance of using power as service, and giving power to others in order that they in turn may do likewise for those they teach and serve.

Perhaps then we may rise above the ideal of the dignity of the individual to the ultimate ideal of the dignity of humanity itself.

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[11] From *The Undiscovered Self* by Carl G. Jung, by permission of Atlantic-Little, Brown and Co. and Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd. Copyright, © 1957, by C. G. Jung. Pp. 112–113.

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